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CULTURE AND THE I.Q.

HARVARD UNIVERSITY's Inglis Lecture for 1948, which was given by Allison Davis, professor of education at the University of Chicago, has been published under the title *Social-Class Influences upon Learning*. Professor Davis has recently expounded the main thesis of this lecture before school administrators of the country at their national conferences in San Francisco, St. Louis, and Philadelphia.

In essence, the proposition advanced by Allison Davis is that the intelligence tests commonly used mask the real learning ability of children from the lower socioeconomic groups. Since the results of these tests often serve to determine the amount and quality of educational opportunity for children, Davis contends that the use of such tests penalizes many American children and weakens American society by causing much of the potential ability of the population to go undeveloped and unused. He calls for

better intelligence tests which will be fairer to children of the economically disadvantaged groups.

The child, according to Davis' analysis, learns the culture of his particular social class:

He can learn a particular culture and a particular moral system only from those people who know this behavior, and who exhibit it in frequent relationships with the learner. If a child associates intimately with no one but slum adults and children, he will learn only slum culture. Thus the pivotal meaning of social classes to the student of behavior is that they limit and pattern the learning-environment; they structure the social "maze" in which the child learns his habits and meanings.

Each social class has developed its own differentiated and adaptive form of the basic American culture. In the slum, as elsewhere, the human group evolves solutions to the basic problems of group life: the problems of subsistence, of unity of the kinship group, of sex-control, of child-rearing, of direction of and defense against aggression, of relation to the supernatural, of recreation, and so on. Because the slum individual usually is re-

sponding to a different physical, economic, and cultural reality from that in which the middle-class individual is trained, the slum individual's habits and values also must be different if they are to be realistic. The behavior which we regard as "delinquent" or "shiftless" or "unmotivated" in slum groups is usually a perfectly realistic, adaptive, and—in slum life—respectable response to reality.

By defining the people with whom an individual may have intimate social relationships, therefore, our social-class system narrows his learning and training environment. His social instigations and goals, his symbolic world and its evaluation are largely selected from the narrow culture of that class with which alone he can associate freely.

Our knowledge of social-class training is now sufficient to enable us to say that no studies can henceforth generalize about "the child." We shall always have to ask, "A child of what social class, in what cultural environment?" Very few of the statements which one may make concerning the physical growth, the socialization, or the motivation of slum children, for example, would hold for upper-middle-class children.

The child's social learning takes place chiefly in the environments of his family and its friends, and of his own play-group. All these groups, we now know, are restricted in the range of their social and cultural participation by social-class barriers. Thus the culture of both the child's family and his play-group become class-typed. This social-class patterning of the child's learning, as exerted through the family, extends from control of the types of food he eats and of the way he eats it to the kinds of sexual, aggressive, and educational training he receives.

An intelligence test item, to be fair to children of two social classes, must refer to experience which is equally present in the lives of both social classes or must refer to experience

which is equally absent from both social classes. In other words, a good intelligence test must either be "culturally equalized" or "culture-free." Davis and his colleagues are working to develop a "culturally equalized" test—one which will be equally fair to children of all socioeconomic groups in the United States.

Davis concludes his lecture with a section titled "Stereotyping of the School Culture." He says:

The present intelligence tests offer one of many instances, to be found in the public schools, of the arbitrary restriction of the goals of the pupils' learning to a very narrow range of activities. The people who devise and teach the curriculums of the public schools are nearly all middle class. More than 95 per cent of the teachers in the communities in New England, the deep South, and the Midwest to which I have referred previously in this paper, are middle class. Like any particular culture, that of the middle class emphasizes a rather narrow range of mental abilities and problems.

The culture of the school, therefore, selects only mental problems which are highly valued in middle-class life, and which appear to provide adaptive training for those who wish to learn the skills and values of the adult culture. If we wish to train a wide range of mental activities in the pupil, however, we need to ask ourselves at least the following questions:

1. Does the public school emphasize a range of mental problems and skills which is too narrow to develop most of the abilities necessary for attainment even in middle-class culture itself?
2. Does the public school select a range of mental problems and skills which is so narrow that the school fails to develop much of the mental potential of lower-class pupils? . . .

All our findings point to the same conclu-

sion: The greatest need of education is for intensive research to discover the best curriculums for developing children's basic mental activities; such activities, that is, as the analysis and organization of observed experiences, the drawing of inferences, the development of inventiveness. The present curriculums are stereotyped and arbitrary selections from a narrow area of middle-class culture. Academic culture is one of the most conservative and ritualized aspects of human culture. Its formalization, its lack of functional connection with the daily problems of life, has given a bloodless, fossilized character to the classroom which all of us recognize. For over a generation, no basically new types of mental problems have been added to intelligence tests. For untold generations, we have been unable to think of anything to put into the curriculum which will be more helpful in guiding the basic mental development of children than vocabulary-building, reading, spelling, and routine arithmetical memorizing. Even as we read this, many of us will think it absurd to suppose that reading and arithmetic are not the best activities for teaching children to solve mental problems.

Let us ask ourselves this simple question, however. What proportion of the *basic mental problems* met by children (and by adults for that matter) in their daily life can be solved by having a large standard vocabulary, or skill in reading, or skill in arithmetical processes? Do these trainings teach a human being correct habits of making inferences or of gaining insight about most of the difficult mental problems which he faces? Does one observe in more than one out of twenty public-school classrooms any activities which help children to learn how to reason, to analyze, to invent; or does one observe instead activities of memorizing, of learning symbols, of reading or listening to predigested solutions by other people, and of paraphrasing ("telling the meaning") of other people's words? Most observers would find the latter.

The book giving the complete text of this challenging lecture may be obtained from Harvard University Press, Cambridge, Massachusetts, at \$1.50 a copy in cloth binding and \$1.00 in paper covers.

INTELLIGENCE OF NEGRO YOUTH

ONE of the groups most probably and most severely disadvantaged by ordinary intelligence tests is undoubtedly the large Negro lower-class group. While there are Negro upper and middle classes in America, with cultures nearly identical with those of the white upper and middle classes, the vast majority of Negroes are in the lower social classes, due probably to the systematic economic discrimination which has been practiced against them.

Accordingly, in the award of Pepsi-Cola scholarships, Negro youth from the southern states have been placed in a class by themselves and awarded a fixed number of scholarships, regardless of their standing relative to white youth on the scholastic-aptitude test of the College Entrance Examination Board, which was used to pick the winners. A "Progress Report on Negro Pepsi-Cola Scholarship Winners," based on a study of the fifty-nine Negro winners in the first three years of the operation of the program, is presented in the Winter, 1949, number of the *Journal of Negro Education*, by Paul F. Lawrence, assistant director of the counseling service at Howard University. Negro scholars aver-

aged decidedly below white scholars on the scholastic-aptitude test:

Of the 59 scholars, fifteen reported that heads of their families were engaged in professional work, the largest proportion being ministers or teachers with two lawyers in the group. There were five each in the farm and clerical groups. Nine heads of families were employed in domestic service and eighteen more were in common labor occupations. One head of a family was a proprietor and one other a semiskilled operative. The occupations for five others were not reported.

Twenty-two students reported the formal education of their parents. Nine had parents who had completed less than eight years of schooling. Five more had parents who had entered high school although only two of this group completed their high-school education. Eight others had parents who had entered college and of this group four had been graduated from college. One scholar's parents had undertaken graduate study.

Financially the scholars' families were distributed along the lower end of the economic scale. Only fourteen families were able to boast of a family income that could be considered fairly adequate—over \$2,000. Sixteen others had incomes which were moderately adequate while 29 families attempted to exist on incomes which were definitely inadequate. . . .

The selection feature of the scholarship program which permits the scholarship winner to select the college he wishes to attend has enabled Negro scholars to attend colleges in all parts of the United States. Thirteen of the group are or have been in attendance at what may be called predominantly white colleges, the balance in Negro colleges. . . .

In spite of the rather dubious academic achievement of some of these scholars when the record of each is reviewed, the composite academic record of the Negro scholar is not below average for college students. He has undertaken, up to the beginning of the 1947-48 school year, 567 semester hours of college

work. He has received *A* grades in 20.2 per cent of his courses, *B* in 39.1 per cent, *C* in 30.5 per cent, *D* in 7.9 per cent, and either failed or received incompletes in 2.3 per cent.

On the whole, the experience so far shows that the outstanding southern Negro youths have done fairly well in college but probably not as well as the white winners of scholarships. Is this because the Negro scholars are innately less intelligent? They certainly average below the white scholars on intelligence tests. Or is their performance affected by attendance at weak high schools and by the fact that at least half of them come from lower-class homes?

CRITIQUE OF INTERGROUP RELATIONS IN TEACHING MATERIALS

ON MARCH 15 the American Council on Education published, under the title *Intergroup Relations in Teaching Materials*, the long-awaited report by Howard E. Wilson on the treatments given to minority groups in textbooks in the United States. Textbooks, according to the study, are not guilty of planned derogation of groups, but much material which is essential to understanding intergroup relations and which would provide better relations is not presented to pupils. The fault lies not in textbooks alone but in the courses of study for which such books are prepared. Only as courses of study demand the inclusion of topics on intergroup relations will textbooks be substantially

improved. The findings of Wilson's study may be summarized as follows:

Textbooks are free of intentional bias toward any population group. But there are frequent value judgments and implications unconsciously or carelessly expressed which tend to perpetuate the antagonisms current in American life. Even more pronounced are "omissions of data and gaps in curriculum planning."

The essence of democratic human relations is respect for individual worth and dignity. In textbooks the individual is usually submerged in the group; there is not adequate attention paid to the nature and value of human personality. Teaching materials and courses of study fail to tell pupils what it means to be a human being; they fail to lay the intellectual foundations for the central ethical principles of the democratic theory.

Even as psychological data about the person are missing, so are the sociological data about the structure of groups, their influence on the individual and on the total society.

RESEARCH IN MINORITY-GROUP PROBLEMS

THE Committee on Education, Training, and Research in Race Relations of the University of Chicago, in co-operation with the American Council on Race Relations, is conducting an inventory of research in race relations and minority-group problems, in order to make available information on current studies which will be of value to persons and agencies carrying on research and also to those engaged in action programs in the field. It is planned to issue quarterly bulletins describing current and recently completed research projects. Two reports, *Inventory of Research in*

Racial and Cultural Relations (Bulletins 1 and 2), have already been issued, dated June 30, 1948, and December 31, 1948.

The inventory bulletins carry accounts of two kinds: descriptions of studies reported in answer to an inventory questionnaire and abstracts of studies contained in published articles, pamphlets, and books. All those who are engaged in research in racial and cultural relations are invited to write to the committee for the inventory questionnaire, on which they can report studies already completed or in progress. The address is Committee on Education, Training, and Research in Race Relations, University of Chicago, 4901 Ellis Avenue, Chicago 15, Illinois. The bulletins already issued may be obtained from the committee at one dollar each.

INTERNATIONAL UNDERSTANDING THROUGH EDUCATION

Occupied countries As conquerors, we manage to get in our own way and oftentimes to defeat our own announced purposes in dealing with the people of the countries which we have occupied. Our military occupation in Germany, Austria, and Japan is supposed to be as much for the good of the democratic people in those countries as for our own good, and we sincerely mean it. But we are not using, as well as we might, the most potent means of coming to agreement and co-operation with the people of the occupied

countries, namely, exchange of people and ideas.

Since the close of the fighting, the large number of Germans, Austrians, and Japanese who want to follow democratic ways have been systematically isolated from communication with the United States. They cannot legally possess American dollars; they cannot get passports for foreign travel; it is almost impossible for them to purchase American books and journals. Thus they can do little on their own initiative to come into communication with people in other countries.

At the same time, our military governments, in Germany and Austria more than in Japan, have worked hard at the policy of promoting communication between the United States and the occupied countries. They have done this by providing funds for the purchase of American books and periodicals and by importing American advisers and selecting a few Germans, Austrians, and Japanese for visits to the United States. But the red tape is so voluminous that it is a triumph of ingenuity and perseverance to get, for example, one German to America; and our government pays a large staff of Americans to maneuver a small number of citizens of ex-enemy countries out of their home country and into the United States for a look at democracy in action.

Clearly, the sensible thing is to restore conditions of travel and foreign exchange to the point where the personal initiative of Germans, Austri-

ans, and Japanese counts for something in terms of cultural relations and communications with this country.

So far, UNESCO has failed utterly to do anything concrete toward the establishment of communication with these former enemy countries. They cannot belong to UNESCO because of the hostility to them of certain countries whose policies are prompted by hatred and desire for revenge. To date, the most that these few countries will agree to is the setting-up of an office in Germany to observe conditions and to inform the Germans of the program of UNESCO. No Germans or Japanese can participate fully in UNESCO conferences, although the Austrians, coming from a "liberated" country, have more rights in this connection.

With UNESCO making futile gestures and with our own government engaged in setting up bureaucratic barriers against its own policy of cultural interchange, there is need of an independent organization to analyze the situation and to point out what should be done to improve our relations with the occupied countries. Fortunately there is such an organization—the Advisory Committee on Cultural and Educational Relations with the Occupied Countries, with offices at 744 Jackson Place, N.W., Washington 6, D.C. A circular telling of the work of this organization says that the basis for such a committee was laid in the fall of 1946:

An American educational mission headed by George F. Zook, president of the American Council on Education, surveyed educational problems in Germany. Among the mission's recommendations was the suggestion that an independent agency be established in the United States to advise with military government authorities concerning our educational policies in Germany and to co-ordinate American voluntary efforts on behalf of education and cultural affairs in that country.

This proposal was given concrete form early in 1948 when Herman B. Wells, then adviser to General Clay on educational and cultural affairs, outlined and secured the approval of General Clay and his staff for a "state-wide" organization under independent auspices but closely linked with military government and the Department of the Army. The American Council on Education acted upon this proposal by calling a series of meetings of the interested organizations and agencies. The Council was asked by the various agencies represented to present a request to a foundation for support of this project. The Rockefeller Foundation made a grant of \$25,000, and, in July, 1948, the work of the Committee was launched.

The general purpose of the Advisory Committee is to develop and strengthen sound approaches to cultural and educational affairs in the occupied countries, stressing particularly the establishment of mutual relations between institutions and organizations in the United States and those in the occupied countries. It is concerned primarily with the promotion of such activities in the educational and cultural fields as will encourage the development of democracy in these countries.

The functions of the Committee include: (1) Review of program policy in consultation with U.S. government departments and agencies, concerning educational and related activities and policies in the occupied countries. (2) Negotiations with independent or-

ganizations for services required to implement educational programs. (3) Assistance in recommending qualified American personnel for overseas service. (4) Stimulation and co-ordination of voluntary reconstruction aid to supplement government funds. (5) Assistance in arrangements for foreign personnel coming to the United States. (6) Establishment of technical panels to advise military government in special fields as needed. (7) Preparation of reports and recommendations to governmental and non-governmental agencies directly concerned.

The Advisory Committee consists of a small group of prominent persons in the major fields of educational and cultural affairs. They do not represent particular organizations but rather have been chosen because of special competence in their respective areas. Chairman of the committee is Herman B. Wells, president of Indiana University. With a few places remaining to be filled, the other members are: Karl W. Bigelow, Bernice Bridges, Detlev M. Bronk, William G. Carr, Pendleton Herring, Cornelius E. Krusé, Frederick G. Melcher, Rev. William E. McManus, Reinhold Niebuhr, Charles E. Odegaard, Clarence E. Pickett, James K. Pollock, Lawrence Rogin, Mrs. Harper Sibley, and John W. Taylor.

Much of the Advisory Committee's work is carried on by a series of panels concerned with the major fields of cultural affairs in the occupied countries. These panels are sponsored in most cases by established organizations, and usually take the form of standing commissions or committees of the sponsoring organizations.

Fields in which such panels or commissions are being established include: *Public Education* (sponsored by the National Education Association); *Teacher Education* (Council on Co-operation in Teacher Education); *Youth Activities* (National Social Welfare Assembly); *Higher Education* (American Council on Education); *Natural Sciences* (National Research Council); *Social Science*

Teaching and Research (Social Science Research Council); *Humanities* (American Council of Learned Societies); *Governmental Affairs* (Civil Administration Division, OMGUS); *Health and Welfare* (Civil Administration Division, OMGUS); *Music* (Civil Affairs Division, Department of the Army, New York Field Office); *Theater* (Civil Affairs Division, Department of the Army, New York Field Office).

Additional panels will be established as they are needed. Under consideration at this time are panels in *Labor Education*, *Women's Activities*, *Rural Life and Agricultural Education*, *Religious Affairs*, and *Legal Affairs*.

The Advisory Committee publishes the *Occupied Countries News Notes* which will be sent free to those who wish to receive them.

Seminar of the CIER The Commission for International Educational Reconstruction will hold its second international seminar in the United States from June 1 to June 21, 1949. The place of the seminar had not been announced at the date of this writing. The following statement is taken from the January number of *National Commission News*, published by the United States National Commission for UNESCO:

The organizations participating in the 1949 seminar will include the Junior Red Cross, whose activities in this connection are made possible by the National Children's Fund; the National Education Association and two of its branches—the Association for Curriculum Development and the Department of Classroom Teachers; and the Department of the Army, which has received word that the Office of Military Government for Germany and the Headquarters for U.S. Forces in Austria plan to sponsor representa-

tives from those countries. A final decision has not been received from Military Headquarters in Japan, but it is possible that nationals from that country may be included. Participation in the seminar is also planned by the Association for Childhood Education. The Institute for International Education, the U.S. Office of Education, and the Department of State will also lend assistance to the program. It is planned to confine the course this year to elementary education.

Scholarships for teachers The February *News Bulletin* of the Institute of International Education

carries news of developments for study abroad under the Fulbright Act. The program is now in operation for Great Britain, Belgium, France, Italy, Luxembourg, New Zealand, Burma, Philippines, and Greece. Teachers in elementary schools, secondary schools, and junior colleges may apply for scholarships to cover one academic year of study, which includes the cost of transportation, equipment for study, and maintenance. Applications should be addressed to the United States Office of Education, International Relations Division, Washington 25, D.C.

Education in Britain *Educational Notes* is the title of a news bulletin on education in Great Britain, which may be had for the asking from the British Information Services, 30 Rockefeller Plaza, New York 20, New York. The February, 1949, issue contains articles on summer schools in British universities, in which places will be available for about 750 American students. There

is also a report on the establishment of a "junior college" in Glasgow, to provide part-time general education for working boys and girls aged 15-18.

In this same issue is an article describing changes in examination procedures in secondary schools. The Secondary Schools Examination Council issued a controversial report in 1947, recommending an "external" examination scheme. The main features of the proposed scheme are:

1. The examination should be open to boys and girls at school and also to candidates who are not attending school.

2. The examination should be taken as late as possible in the school career, and therefore as close as possible to the change to further education, or to the entry into a career. The Council proposed that no candidate should sit for any part of the examination until he is at least sixteen on September 1 of the year of the examination.

3. Papers should be set in all suitable subjects at three levels: "Ordinary," "Advanced," and "Scholarship." The Ordinary papers should be designed to provide a reasonable test in the subject for pupils who have taken it in a wide and general secondary course up to the age of at least sixteen, or for pupils who have taken the subject in a nonspecialist way in the sixth form [the English equivalent of the Senior year in high school]. The Advanced papers should provide a test of subjects taken for two years as specialized subjects in the sixth form, and the Scholarship papers should be designed to give an ample choice of questions, covering much the same fields as those covered by the Advanced papers, to give specially gifted pupils opportunity to show distinctive merit and promise.

4. All the subjects at each stage would be entirely optional, and there should be no requirements about group subjects, or mini-

mum number of papers. Students should not be expected to take the sequence of the examinations, but should be free to sit for any paper at any level. A "General Certificate of Education" should be awarded to each successful candidate, recording the subjects taken and the level attained.

5. The Council proposed that the level of passes should be raised. At the Ordinary level, it should be roughly equivalent to the "Credit" standard in the present School Certificate, and a pass at the Advanced level should approximate the present Higher School Certificate pass.

The Minister of Education decided to accept the recommendations of the Council concerning external examinations. In April, 1948, it was announced that the change from the old system to the new would be effected in stages, with the General Certificate of Education to be established by 1951. In the following year, the standard would be appreciably raised, and the minimum age limit of sixteen would be raised some time thereafter. By 1951, the universities should have altered their arrangements for granting exemption from their entrance examinations.

EDUCATION FOR MENTAL HEALTH

IT IS a familiar cry in today's world that man can understand and control the atom but that he finds it all too difficult to understand and control himself. Some of the sharpest crises of our time, domestic as well as international, arise from failure in human relationships. The tensions and the search for apparent "solutions" too often lead to divorce in the family of individuals, war in the family of nations.

Americans look to their schools when problems of child-training arise that they cannot solve individually.

The problem of rearing effective, well-balanced people is increasingly seen as a function of our educational system. Two basic questions are involved: What are the principles of healthy emotional development? What can teachers do to promote it?

In the *High School Journal* for January, 1949, Helen Speyer, a member of the International Committee on Mental Hygiene, New York City, reports the recommendations prepared for the International Congress on Mental Health, held in London last August. They suggest both a philosophy and a program which high schools can adapt to the needs of growing adolescents:

This statement . . . reaffirms the importance of the family as the social unit transmitting the standards and cultural attitudes of a society and providing the experiences by which the young child forms the early pattern of personal relationships. . . . Adolescence, the period of biological maturing, is one of the periods when social and educational influences may direct or redirect attitudes and behavior.

The period of adolescence is commonly one in which the individual shows emotional instability and conflict. The adolescent may be confused about family relationships, parental authority, his sexual drives, or the need to make educational or vocational plans. Often educators and parents are so disturbed by adolescents' unfavorable attitudes or their behavior difficulties that they may lose sight of the favorable aspects of this age level. Typically, adolescents are idealistic, their productive energy is high, and they express interest in widely different types of activity. Too often we in America fail to find appropriate means of utilizing these good qualities in a socially constructive manner. Too often we permit young

people's enthusiasm and interest to deaden, their idealism to be supplanted by a cynical, "what's the use" attitude. This may lead to considerable individual frustration and to social waste for the community. . . .

Before teachers may be expected to accept [their] extended role, they will need a kind of preparation not provided in most of our teacher-training institutions now. One preparatory commission made several recommendations for the professional education of teachers. It is of the utmost importance that prospective teachers have "an understanding of human behavior and its significance in family relationships." . . . It need hardly be repeated here that the essential underlying requirement of teacher training is related to the selection of candidates for the job. Teacher-training institutions should accept only those men and women who have the necessary personality qualifications to work with young people and who truly like them. All else is secondary. . . .

During the early years of adolescence, probably through the first two years of secondary school, when the young people are confused about their own parent and family relationships, courses should be directed toward helping them to gain insight into their own problems. They will need help in understanding their role, in realizing that their confusion is common to many. Courses whose content centers around the adolescent himself may be very meaningful and may help him to develop his own social values. Classroom teaching may sometimes need to be supplemented by individual counseling. Sometimes this may be undertaken by teachers with special skills. Sometimes other professional aid should be secured, if it is available. The content of family-life courses will require considerable experimentation and the handling of this emotional material calls for special teacher preparation. Any teacher who gives these courses should be unusually sensitive to the group's readiness for this type of discussion and should be able to handle the feelings aroused.

In later adolescence, the last year or two of high school, some direct preparation for marriage may be given. This is not to be confused with "sex education" in the narrow sense. Sex information clearly will need to be a part of such a course, but the preparatory commissions recommended that it should not be taught as a special subject.

Close co-operation with students' families is particularly essential. Reports indicate that usually there has been a closer tie between parents and teachers in elementary schools than in high schools. . . . It seems probable, however, that closer co-operation between parents and the high schools could be developed because it is precisely at adolescence that so many parent-child problems become acute. . . . If selected high-school teachers were equipped to help with these problems, many parents would welcome their assistance. This might be variously given. . . . The important thing is for educators to be flexible in using and modifying their methods to meet individual needs. In some communities which lack specialized social-agency or child-guidance facilities the school is the only resource available to help the youngster or the parent with their relationship difficulties. Planning should therefore be directed toward increasing the effectiveness of the skills of teachers.

Parents may be of assistance to teachers, a fact which is sometimes disregarded. They may contribute to a teacher's understanding of a student, or they may be able to inform him of the special needs of the adolescent group in their community. Parents and teachers may co-operate, or they may oppose one another. When the latter happens, the confusion of the adolescent is increased and neither can be really helpful to him. . . .

Possible ways have been suggested in which school programs may be extended to serve adolescents and their families more adequately, but the preparatory commissions expressed some caution. We must not assume, they said, that education will provide the solution for the many problems of

adolescence, or for that matter for the other social problems facing us. Education does not offer a panacea. We must approach modifications in our school programs in a spirit of conscious experimentation which will require continuous research.

THE SUCCESSFUL HIGH-SCHOOL COUNSELOR

ONE role that teachers are assuming to an increasing degree is that of the personal counselor. There is no educational method more effective in producing improved attitudes and emotional adjustment than an intimate, face-to-face contact with the individual student. Stanley C. Benz, at Purdue University, has studied the knowledge, beliefs, and techniques which good high-school counselors use. His findings suggest important guide lines—and cautions—for the teacher-counselor.

1. Capitalize on a student's success. Praise is a better incentive for achievement than blame.
2. Understand the role of emotions in human behavior. In many instances emotion overrules intelligence and dictates behavior. Permit the free expression of emotions during an interview.
3. Don't pass judgment on a student's behavior. Be interested. Listen. Evaluate in your own mind what he says, but don't label him "good" or "bad."
4. Understand the mechanisms of abnormal behavior. There is a reason underlying everything one does. If a person is able to satisfy his needs the way most people do, he is considered normal. If he is unable to do this, he will quite naturally try to satisfy his needs, but may do it in an exaggerated manner. He is then considered as "different" or an "abnormal" person.

5. Consider the effects of environment on one's behavior. "When in Rome one does as the Romans do." Some problems will no longer exist if Rome has the proper economic, social, educational, and spiritual climate.

6. Remember that nearly all students benefit by good counsel. It is just as important to stimulate the intellectually gifted and the well-adjusted students to perform at their optimum capacities as it is to help the less talented and poorly adjusted students.

7. Strive to be personally well adjusted. One cannot share what he does not have.

8. Consider a student as a whole person. A counselor must remember that the child brings to school with him all the experiences he had at home that morning and at play the day before. He brings with him all the fears, joys, anxieties, hopes, successes, and failures which have accumulated during his entire past. A particular behavior pattern may be only a symptom of the real problem.

9. Distinguish between counseling and teaching. They are not yet identical activities although they are becoming increasingly similar. Teaching is still referred to as instructing and imparting information. Counseling is the process which helps the student incorporate into his life that which he has learned so that it will help him to meet his needs.

10. Be straightforward and objective. A counselor must be judicious in handling facts concerning the student, but the facts must be obtained and dealt with.

11. Center the interview around the problem expressed by the student. If the student says he has a problem, then he has one. He should solve it. A counselor should talk the student's language. A counselor should believe that the student can solve his own problem. The counselor's job is to set up the proper environment and keep the conversation going along the line that will help the

student bring his problem to the foreground and eventually discover the meaning of his own behavior.

The complete report of the investigation has been published as Number 64 in Purdue University's series, "Studies in Higher Education," under the title *An Investigation of the Attributes and Techniques of High-School Counselors*. Copies may be obtained at \$0.75 each from the Division of Educational Reference, Purdue University, Lafayette, Indiana.

MISCELLANEOUS NOTES

Propaganda or education? According to news reports, industrialists of the Mahoning and Shenango valleys in northeastern

Ohio have founded, at Youngstown, an Industrial Information Institute, which is going to "tell the schools about industry." The work of the School Advisory Committee, organized by the Institute with the full cooperation of the school authorities and including representatives of schools and industry, has been most extensive during the year.

The first of eleven school textbooks, designed as supplementary reading for each grade from the third through high school, is being published. Manuscripts for two more have been completed, and a fourth is virtually finished. These books tell, each in simple language appropriate to the grade for which it is intended, "the story of the social, economic, and industrial de-

velopment of our valleys." Says the Industrial Information Institute:

School authorities believe that such books have been needed for years. It is planned that these books, presenting the fundamentals of the American system of free enterprise, will be regular study for some 100,000 students through presentation by some 3,700 teachers.

A committee of engineers and personnel directors is working, at the request of school vocational advisers, in the preparation of a manual of jobs available in the Mahoning and Shenango valleys. The Institute claims:

This will be the first manual of its kind ever prepared for use in the schools of a related area and is welcomed by the schools as a long-needed aid in giving students a better understanding of their place in the social structure and the need for training for a specific type of work.

Approximately 80 per cent of the students in public and parochial schools complete their education with high-school graduation. "Soon it will be possible for them to know before graduation what jobs are available and those for which they might prepare themselves," the Institute maintains.

To assist superintendents, principals, and vocational supervisors of the many school systems in the area, two-day tours of local industries were arranged by the Institute in each county. As an extension of the co-operation of Institute members with the schools, a project is now being formulated, at the suggestion of the school authorities, which will call

upon industrialists to spend one day each school semester with classes in a school which have a direct association with the jobs in their plants.

Caps and gowns for graduates? It has been argued that the wearing of caps and gowns at commencement by high-school graduates saves money for them because it spares them from buying new clothes. To examine this argument, three investigators gave questionnaires to graduating Seniors in Terre Haute, Indiana. J. R. Shannon, of Sacramento State College, Sacramento, California; Marian A. Kittle, of Cottey College, Nevada, Missouri; and Erma R. Mewhinney, of Garfield High School in Terre Haute, report their study in an article, "Economies of Academic Costumes," appearing in *School Activities* for February, 1949.

Here is what they found. In two high schools, one using caps and gowns and the other not using them, the same percentage of graduating girls (93 per cent) bought new dresses. Among the boys, 78 per cent of the group without caps and gowns bought new suits, and 58 per cent with caps and gowns did so; but the latter group paid considerably more for their suits. The authors summarize their findings as follows: "In so far as the data of this survey are a basis for conclusions, the use of caps and gowns at high-school commencements will have to be justified or defended on other grounds than economic."

Workshop for leaders of groups For the third consecutive year, leaders in group dynamics and social research announce their national training laboratory in group development, to be held at Gould Academy, Bethel, Maine. The laboratory will be concerned with training leaders for "group membership, group productivity, and group strength." The laboratory is sponsored by the National Education Association and staff members from the University of Illinois, University of Michigan, Ohio State University, and the University of Chicago.

Applications for admission to the laboratory should be sent to Leland P. Bradford, National Education Association, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W.,

Washington 6, D.C., before April 30. The laboratory begins on June 19 and will end on July 8. A fee of \$100 plus an average cost of \$40 a week for maintenance constitute the total cost. The laboratory extends a special invitation to members of teacher organizations and school systems.

According to the announcement issued by the laboratory, participants will have an opportunity "for exploring new scientific knowledge and practicing basic skills in human relations through integration of education and research methods, action techniques, and group work. Those accepted will work with other leaders from many different job backgrounds, community situations, and geographical areas."

ROBERT J. HAVIGHURST

WHO'S WHO FOR APRIL

Authors of news notes and articles The news notes in this issue have been prepared by ROBERT J. HAVIGHURST, professor of education and secretary of the Committee on Human Development at the University of Chicago. LEONARD V. KOOS, professor of secondary education at the University of Chicago, reports the results of a study made in the state of Pennsylvania to determine the best plan for developing and maintaining junior colleges. ROSEN J. MAASKE, president of Eastern Oregon College of Education, La Grande, Oregon, describes the use of the symposium method in high-school teaching. H. OTTO DAHLKE and THOMAS O. MONAHAN, both assistant professors at the University of Connecticut, discuss the problems which arise in applying sociometric techniques to the schools. JOHN R. EALES, co-ordinator and

director of secondary education in the Los Angeles County Schools, Los Angeles, California, recommends that the broad purposes and aims of secondary education be interpreted for both the general public and high-school students. PAUL W. TERRY, professor of psychology at the University of Alabama, and ARCHIE E. HENDRICKS, research assistant in the Department of Education at the University of Chicago, present a list of selected references on the extra-curriculum.

Reviewers of books CARROLL D. CHAMPLIN, professor of education at Pennsylvania State College, State College, Pennsylvania. JASPER J. VALENTI, research assistant in the Department of Education at the University of Chicago. GEORGE W. BROWN, assistant principal of the Tolleston School, Gary, Indiana.

A COMMUNITY-COLLEGE PLAN FOR PENNSYLVANIA. I

LEONARD V. KOOS

University of Chicago



REPORTED here are the outcomes of an inquiry at the state level to arrive at a plan of developing and maintaining junior colleges, or, to apply the designation which has gained popular favor since it was used in the report of the President's Commission on Higher Education, "community colleges." The state is Pennsylvania. The problems investigated are the need for such a development, the location of the institutions, their organizational relationship to lower school levels, the costs involved in maintaining them (including the issue of state aid), and the agencies of control both locally and for the commonwealth.

The investigation was made by the writer¹ during the spring and summer of 1948. It was part of a comprehensive survey of higher education in the state, referred to as the "Post-High-School Study," of which Dr. George A. Works was director. The making of the survey was financed by an appropriation of Pennsylvania's General Assembly. The work was done under the sponsorship of the Joint State

Government Commission, a continuing body provided for under state legislation. A co-operating committee of fifteen members representative of educational and other interests in the several geographic sections of the commonwealth was appointed. Ten members were appointed by the Governor; two each were appointed by the Speaker of the House of Representatives and the President pro tempore of the Senate of the General Assembly. The Superintendent of Public Instruction was also a member.

NEED FOR COMMUNITY COLLEGES IN PENNSYLVANIA

Proportions of the 18-20 age group in school.—One measure used to throw light on the need for opportunities for education at the post-high-school level is the percentage of persons of certain age groups reported by the federal Census of 1940 as attending school. Age groups compared are the 16-17 year-olds and the 18-20 year-olds, which, respectively, may be regarded as ages appropriate for later high-school and early college, or "junior-college," years. For the whole state these percentages were, respec-

¹ With the help of Sebastian V. Martorana, who at the time was research assistant for junior colleges in the Division of Higher Education in the United States Office of Education.

tively, 76.2 and 21.1. That is, the proportion of the older group attending school was only between a fourth and a third of the younger group.

The distributions and the median percentages for the 67 counties and the 103 municipalities with 10,000 or more population, shown in Table 1, emphasize the impression of disparity between the two age groups. The distribution of counties for the 16-17 year group is clustered in the upper percentage intervals; that for the 18-20 year group in the lower intervals, with a wide gap between the two distributions. Almost the same disparity is seen for the distributions for the municipalities. The general impression given is that the post-high-school age level lags far behind the later high-school level in school attendance.

When comparison was made between the percentages of persons 18-20 years old attending school in the 67 counties and the indexes of socioeconomic status of the counties, a significant relationship was found. For the counties with indexes of 85-89, the median percentage was 17.8, while for the counties with indexes of 110-14, the median percentage was 24.2. The percentage for a few counties was out of line with the relationship, but, for almost all counties, the proportion attending reflected the influence of socioeconomic status.

Proportions of high-school graduates continuing.—From evidence available in reports of Pennsylvania's Department of Education it was possible to

compute the percentages of high-school graduates from 1931 to 1947 who continued their education at the higher level during the year following graduation. The total number of graduates mounted rapidly until 1941, but

TABLE 1

DISTRIBUTION OF THE 67 COUNTIES AND THE 103 MUNICIPALITIES OF MORE THAN 10,000 POPULATION IN PENNSYLVANIA ACCORDING TO PERCENTAGES OF PERSONS 16-17 AND 18-20 YEARS OLD ATTENDING SCHOOL IN 1940

PER CENT	NUMBER OF COUNTIES		NUMBER OF MUNICIPALITIES	
	16-17	18-20	16-17	18-20
90.0-93.9...	9
86.0-89.9...	23
82.0-85.9...	6	26
78.0-81.9...	9	21
74.0-77.9...	15	7
70.0-73.9...	20	11
66.0-69.9...	8	4
62.0-65.9...	4	1
58.0-61.9...	3	1	1
54.0-57.9...	2
50.0-53.9...
46.0-49.9...	3
42.0-45.9...	3
38.0-41.9...	3
34.0-37.9...	3
30.0-33.9...	1	3
26.0-29.9...	6	17
22.0-25.9...	19	30
18.0-21.9...	24	26
14.0-17.9...	16	13
10.0-13.9...	1	1
Median...	73.4	20.8	83.1	23.6

the percentage continuing declined almost steadily from 30.6 in 1931 to 14.1 in 1941. The percentage rose to 21.6 for graduates of 1947.

The variation of percentages from county to county and from city to city is very wide, establishing great inequalities of educational oppor-

tunity. The actual range for counties in 1941 was from 4.6 to 32.1 per cent and in 1947, from 10.1 to 30.3 per cent. For municipalities it was even wider: in 1941 it was from 0.7 to 51.2 per cent and in 1947, from 7.9 to 58.8.

To some extent, but only moderately, the variation can be explained by the presence in some civil units and districts of opportunities for higher education of one sort or another. Of the counties, 37.4 per cent were without opportunities and of municipalities with populations of 10,000 and over, 68.9 per cent were without. Of districts with 500 or more and with 800 or more students in Grades IX-XII, the percentages without opportunities were, respectively, 79.5 and 64.5. The extent of influence of proximity of opportunities may be seen in the following measures: (1) for counties without and with opportunities the percentages of high-school graduates continuing in 1941 were, respectively, 12.6 and 15.1; in 1947, 17.0 and 21.2; (2) for municipalities without and with opportunities the percentages in 1941 were, respectively, 13.5 and 17.7, and in 1947, 20.8 and 24.3.

The small differences between civil units and districts without and with opportunities prompted comparison with situations having junior colleges. The comparison is made in Figure 1, which reports the medians for the Pennsylvania cities in 1941 and 1947, those for midwestern cities without junior colleges, for midwestern cities with tuition-charging junior colleges, and for midwestern and California

cities with tuition-free junior colleges.² It may be said further concerning the tuition-charging junior colleges that the average tuition rate was somewhat less than a hundred dollars per year and concerning the tuition-free junior colleges that there was no tendency to difference in the percentages continuing in the states of the Midwest and in California.

It should be noted from the figure that the percentage in midwestern cities without junior colleges in 1941 was somewhat larger than for Pennsylvania cities in the same year, although the percentage for Pennsylvania cities rose by 1947 from its earlier level. Without doubt, the measure for midwestern cities without junior colleges rose also during the same interval. The chief findings from the comparison are that the presence of a tuition-charging junior college (with the rate of tuition around a hundred dollars per year) increased the proportion of high-school graduates continuing to higher-level education in the median situation by about three-fifths and that the presence of a tuition-free unit raised the proportion to almost three times that in cities without such units.

Factors limiting continuance.—From the interpretation up to this point it is known that socioeconomic status and proximity of opportunities are influences on continuance of education by high-school graduates in the state.

² Leonard V. Koos, "How To Democratize the Junior-College Level," *School Review*, LII (May, 1944), 271-84.

However, the low proportions continuing suggested the desirability of an extensive study of existing opportunities for higher education.

An inquiry was made into tuition costs in the more than a hundred institutions in Pennsylvania. The median annual charge for tuition and fees for full-time students in 1946-47 was found to be \$361. The medians for the different groups of institutions were as follows: junior colleges and undergraduate centers (20 institutions), \$361; colleges (48), \$411; teachers' colleges (14), \$150; technical and professional schools (5), \$350; theological schools (6), \$70; and universities (9), \$425. It may be readily understood why youth from families of the lower socioeconomic levels attend school in small proportions. This would be true for families in cities and districts with opportunities, and the cost would be even more prohibitive for youth in cities and districts remote from opportunities.

Among other restrictive influences are the nature of the curriculum offering in the institutions, the degree of selection exercised by the admitting institutions, the policy of sex segregation, and denomination. The possible effect of each of these will be briefly considered.

Of these four additional factors the nature of the curriculum is probably the most pervasive in influence. This assertion has the support of an examination of the offerings of 103 institutions in the state in 1946-47 as described in their catalogues. In this ex-

amination, the following classification of curriculums available in the institutions at the level of the first two college years was used: liberal arts, pre-professional, teacher preparation, technical and other professional, and terminal occupational. The curriculum last named is intended for students who do not plan to continue beyond the second college year. Only 19 of the entire group of 103 institutions have such curriculums. They were found in 14 of the 21 junior colleges and undergraduate centers and in 5 of the 47 colleges. The work in these two years in almost all institutions is essentially preparatory to the next higher level and has relatively little meaning for students who do not plan to complete four or more years of college or university programs. In this connection it is appropriate to report that only a fourth of all students entering junior colleges transfer to higher institutions, the remaining three-fourths concluding their education within the junior-college period.³

Closely associated with the inadequacy of present curriculum offerings for popularizing the collegiate level are the selective practices of the higher institutions in admitting students. Although these policies vary, the tradition is that of taking pride in a highly selected student body. The policy of selection is a logical accompaniment of curriculum offerings four or

³ Walter Crosby Eells and Others, *Why Junior College Terminal Education?* pp. 60-65. Terminal Education Monograph No. 3. Washington: American Association of Junior Colleges, 1941.

more years in length, whether liberal arts, pre-professional, or professional. Popularization demands an abatement of highly selective practices at the same time that terminal programs are extensively developed.

In 1946-47 ten of 103 municipalities with populations of 10,000 and over had higher institutions admitting only men or only women. The restrictive influence of sex segregation in an educational institution is obvious. In the same number of institutions there was denominational control. Although denominationalism as a barrier to attendance has for some time been on the wane, no one will doubt that it is still a restrictive influence against popularization of college-level education.

Finally, it should be noted that the various restrictive influences seldom operate singly; more often than not, two or more are joined in the same institution, such as distance from the student, a tuition rate that is prohibitive to persons of low socioeconomic status, and a curriculum suited only for those who will continue through the full college or professional course, not to mention still others.

The kind of institution needed.—The upshot of the foregoing analysis is the indication of the need for provision in the state of a basically different kind of unit than the typical higher institution, if the collegiate level of education is to be democratized. The issue of the importance of the service of existing higher institutions is not raised; rather, the need for another type of

institution that will broaden the base of collegiate education. This institution must be accessible to the youth of appropriate ages by being near at hand (as a local institution) and by being tuition-free. Its curriculums should include both the work in preparation for more advanced education and the terminal offerings required to meet the occupational and general needs of the majority of prospective students. Even if it does not abandon selective procedures, it must at least retreat from the highly selective policies of the traditional higher institution.

Status of the junior college in Pennsylvania.—Because persons not conversant with the actual situation may urge that the state is already well supplied with community colleges, a few facts on the status are here reported. Using evidence available in reports of the United States Office of Education,⁴ it may be reported that Pennsylvania had in 1947 only 10, or 2.2 per cent, of the 463 junior colleges of the country, and these institutions enrolled only 2,612, or 1.2 per cent, of the students in the country's junior colleges. In the same year, the estimated population eighteen and nineteen years of age in the state made up 8.1 per cent of that of the same age group in the country as a whole. The percentages indicate that junior-college development in the state lags far behind that in the country generally.

⁴ United States Office of Education, Circular 238.

WHERE AND HOW TO ORGANIZE

High-school enrolments in the state.—

The present section is concerned mainly with where the community colleges should be established and under what organizational arrangements with other parts of the school system.

For reasons that are already apparent and that will be given further support below, a policy of localism is followed in identifying the places where

tification for using enrolment in high-school grades is that it provides a measure of interest in, and utilization of, educational opportunities in the given district at the level next below that of the community college.

The distribution by size of enrolment in Grades IX–XII in all districts in Pennsylvania maintaining high schools is displayed in Table 2. It may be seen that, of the 879 dis-

TABLE 2

DISTRIBUTION BY ENROLMENTS IN GRADES IX–XII IN 1946–47 OF DISTRICTS IN PENNSYLVANIA MAINTAINING HIGH SCHOOLS

Enrolment	Number	Per Cent	Enrolment	Number	Per Cent
Fewer than 100.....	183	20.8	1,200–1,399.....	7	0.8
100–199.....	210	24.0	1,400–1,599.....	8	.9
200–299.....	137	15.6	1,600–1,799.....	4	.5
300–399.....	98	11.1	1,800–1,999.....	1	.1
400–499.....	66	7.5	2,000–2,499.....	5	.6
500–599.....	44	5.0	2,500–2,999.....	4	.5
600–699.....	38	4.3	3,000–3,999.....	7	.8
700–799.....	16	1.8	4,000–4,999.....	3	.3
800–899.....	13	1.5	Over 20,000.....	2	0.2
900–999.....	9	1.0			
1,000–1,199.....	24	2.7	Total.....	879	100.0

community colleges should be established. This is the policy of locating a state's community colleges, so far as possible, within commuting distance of prospective students, as otherwise the institutions can hardly serve as community colleges.

In applying the policy here, a measure used as one indication of feasibility of maintaining a community college is enrolment in the high-school grades, IX through XII, that is, the enrolment in these grades irrespective of the patterns of school organization in the different districts, whether the pattern is 8–4, 6–3–3, or 6–6. The jus-

tricts, 20.8 per cent, or about a fifth of all, enrolled fewer than 100 pupils; 24.0 per cent, or about a fourth, enrolled between 100 and 200, etc. Fully three-fifths of all these enrolments were of fewer than 300 students. This is to say that the majority of high schools in the state are small—a fact complicating the problem of establishing community colleges.

This tabulation disregards, to save space, the distribution of enrolments for each of the four classes of districts in the state. Districts of the first class, which include only Philadelphia and Pittsburgh, had enrolments in excess

of 20,000. The enrolments for districts of the second class, 20 in number, ranged from 1,600 to 4,999. Enrolments for districts of the third class as a group, including those with city and with county superintendents, ranged between 100 and 2,499, while those for fourth-class districts enrolled between fewer than 100 and 999. These differences in distributions lead to the expectation that districts of the first three classes would be those most likely to meet any criterion for location of community colleges based on high-school enrolment.

Deriving the criterion of enrolment.—A working criterion of 800 students in Grades IX–XII was derived and applied for identifying the districts which should first be considered as locations for community colleges. It owes its derivation to two factors: (1) the minimum desirable enrolment for the community college and (2) the ratio of community-college enrolment to local high-school enrolment in these grades. The minimum desirable community-college enrolment was set at 200 students and was based on two controlling considerations, namely, the need for a student body large enough to justify an adequate curriculum and the influence of enrolment on costs per student. Exposition of these considerations is not reproduced here, but it may be said that they are factually established. The ratio of community-college to high-school enrolment applied in this Pennsylvania inquiry is 1:4, which would call for an enrolment of at least 800 in Grades

IX–XII in a district to be considered as a location for a community college.

The ratio of 1:4 is somewhat smaller than was used by the writer in projecting a proposal for post-high-school development in a midwestern state a few years ago. For that state a ratio of 1:3 was applied because it had been found that junior-college enrolments in free-tuition situations in the Midwest and California were, on the average, almost exactly one-third of the high-school enrolments.⁵ It goes almost without saying that the proportion of the high-school enrolment represented by the junior-college enrolment was much smaller in tuition-charging than in tuition-free situations. For the former it was only about a seventh, and the proportion in tuition-free situations was 2.4 times that in tuition-charging situations. Because the proportions of youth continuing to the college level in Pennsylvania were lower than in the Midwest and California (see Figure 1), the ratio of 1:4 seems a reasonable proportion. While to some persons it may seem a little conservative, conservatism is encouraged not only by the relatively small proportions continuing at the college level under current provisions for higher education but also by the greater opportunities for employment in a state as largely industrial as Pennsylvania.

The policy of localism in establishing community colleges.—Application of the policy of localism in the proposals in this report is urged by the conclu-

⁵ Leonard V. Koos, *op. cit.*, p. 281.

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sions from an earlier investigation which ascertained the proportions of graduates of high schools at different distances from state, or regional, junior colleges entering those institutions.⁶ The percentages from local high schools entering local junior colleges and regional junior colleges were

colleges were, respectively, 44.3 and 43.2, whereas the percentage entering the state institutions from high schools 7-15 miles distant was 12.7, and the percentage declined steadily with increase of distance of the high school from the regional institutions. It should be said that representatives of

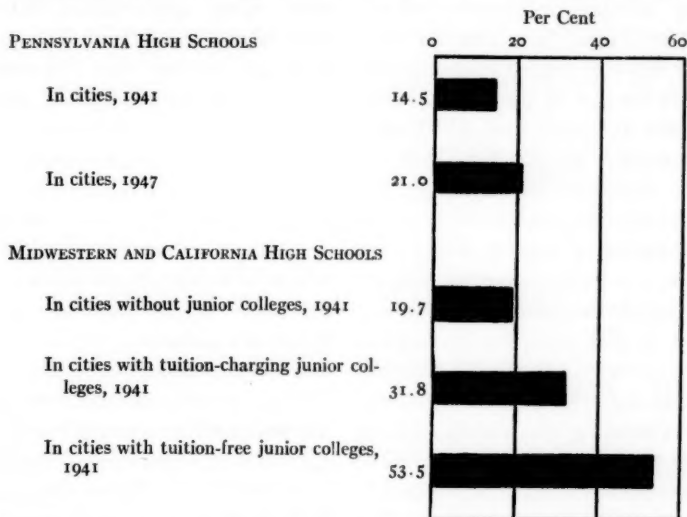


FIG. 1.—Median percentages of graduates of high schools in municipalities in Pennsylvania in 1941 and 1947 and in certain groups of cities in the Midwest and California in 1941 who continued their education in institutions at the collegiate level.

both large and approximately equal. However, the percentages from high schools outside the districts of location of regional junior colleges were so small as to discredit the principle of regionalism. To be specific, the percentages of graduates of local high schools entering state, or regional, junior colleges and local public junior

the undergraduate centers in Pennsylvania operating under the auspices of Pennsylvania State College were included in this investigation, and the evidence for them was in accord with that for the study as a whole.

The implications of this comparison of local and regional junior colleges in respect to their power to draw high-school graduates at varying distances from undergraduate centers and area centers are such as largely to discredit

⁶ Leonard V. Koos, "Local versus Regional Junior Colleges," *School Review*, LII (November, 1944), 525-31.

regional institutions. The acceptability of these centers may be further questioned in comparison with community colleges on the grounds of the relatively large tuition charges made and the restricted nature of the curriculum. The charges for tuition in the centers have been the chief source of support, whereas community colleges should be tuition-free, and the curriculum has been largely limited to the standard courses in the first two college years. It is safe to conclude that popularization of the level will be notably increased by replacing the centers with community colleges.

Distribution of districts meeting the criterion.—A highly important matter for concern in establishing community colleges is their geographic distribution. A partial check on this distribution is to note the distribution of the districts meeting the criterion of 800 or more students in Grades IX–XII to the counties of the state. This check is being reported without recommending departure from the policy of localism and without commitment to a county-unit plan of community-college development in a state which does not operate its counties as local school districts.

The total number of districts represented is 93. This includes the 87 districts in Table 2 found in the intervals from 800–899 to over 20,000 and 6 districts in the 700–799 interval which were found to have 750–799 students. These 6 districts were added because it is to be expected that their enrolments might attain 800 in a year or two.

The distribution of the 67 counties in the state by the number of districts meeting the criterion is given in the second column of Table 3. According to the evidence, 26 of the counties would be without community colleges if such units were established only in districts meeting the criterion. At the same time, 41 counties, or about three-fifths of all, have one or more districts meeting the criterion and would have community colleges. The table reports also the counties having and not having within their boundaries some kind of educational opportunity at the post-high-school level in 1947–48; that is, a college, university, teachers' college, undergraduate center, etc., or two or more different types of institutions. Of the 26 counties without districts meeting the criterion, 10 have opportunities and 16 are without them, and of the 41 counties with such districts, 32 contain opportunities and 9 do not. The analysis finds that the great majority of counties which have districts meeting the criterion also have some kind of opportunity. The effect of the presence of these institutions on popularizing the post-high-school level was studied in the first section of this article, and a far from significant influence was noted.

A concrete impression of the distribution over the state of districts meeting the criterion and of opportunities for post-high-school education is given in Figure 2, which is a map of the state including names and boundaries of counties. The approxi-

mate, although not accurate, locations of both the districts and the opportunities are indicated. The impression bears out the expectations from the evidence reported: it is an impression that establishment of community colleges in all districts meeting the criterion would expand greatly the proportion of districts in the state where post-high-school education is available and at the same time serve, through affording additional opportunities with fewer restrictive influences on attendance than in institutions now operative, to increase the proportions of youth in school at the post-high-school level.

Possibilities in counties without districts meeting the criterion.—The fact that 26 of the 67 counties contained no single district meeting the criterion of 800 students in Grades IX–XII raises the question of what may be done in them to provide community-college opportunities for their youth and prompts further consideration of the community-college problem in such counties in the state. For this further consideration, the full report presented additional evidence. One kind of evidence was the number of students in Grades IX–XII in each county. This evidence found only a small number of counties with fewer than a thousand students in these grades. Another kind of evidence was the number of persons in the population 18–20 years old in each county. While it is not known what proportions of youth of these ages would be available for attendance at a com-

munity college, it was noted that relatively few counties had fewer than a thousand in this age group in 1940. The report urged intensive inquiry in the counties without individual districts meeting the criterion in order to ascertain in how many and under

TABLE 3

DISTRIBUTION OF THE 67 COUNTIES IN PENNSYLVANIA ACCORDING TO THE NUMBERS OF DISTRICTS WITH 800 OR MORE STUDENTS IN GRADES IX–XII IN 1946–47 AND THE NUMBERS OF COUNTIES WITH AND WITHOUT OPPORTUNITIES FOR EDUCATION AT POST-HIGH-SCHOOL LEVEL IN 1947–48

NUMBER OF DISTRICTS	NUMBER OF COUNTIES		
	All	With Opportunities	Without Opportunities
0.....	26	10	16
1.....	23	17	6
2.....	5	4	1
3.....	6	6
4.....	1	1
5.....	4	3	1
6.....	1	1
12.....	1	1
Total....	67	42	25

what arrangements community colleges might be established and maintained by plans of consolidation or of co-operative effort analogous to the plans followed in maintaining high schools by co-operative effort. It contained illustrations of possibilities along these lines and also stressed the preferability of consolidation of districts to the plan of co-operative effort.

Plans of consolidation and co-oper-

ative effort can do much to extend post-high-school opportunities to many districts and sections where establishment of community colleges would otherwise be impracticable. However, even after resort has been taken to all possibilities of this kind, some sections of the state will remain unserved by local institutions at this level. The distribution of the population in Pennsylvania lends itself better to community-college development than that of many other states. Nevertheless, her terrain and the sparse distribution of population in some sections will call for one more step to popularize the level, that of providing subsistence allowances for students who live beyond commuting distance from a community college. Such allowances would be needed by a small minority of prospective students only but would be essential to full equalization of educational opportunity. They would be the third link in a chain of economic policy that would bring post-high-school education to all deserving youth, the other two links being free tuition and transportation for those within commuting distance.

Incorporating the community college into the local school system.—In practice, there are three ways in which the community college, or junior college, is incorporated in the local school systems of the country. In about a third of all systems with these units, they are separately housed and administered, that is, as two-year units separate from lower schools but still part of the system. In most of the remaining, or almost two-thirds, of the sys-

tems the two-year unit is housed, or "associated," with three-year or four-year high schools in what are termed 3-2 or 4-2 "associations." During the past ten to twenty years there has emerged a third type of organization involving the integration of the two post-high-school with the last two high-school years into a four-year junior college, or community-college, unit. This type of unit is almost always accompanied in the same school systems by four-year junior high schools including Grades VII-X. The resulting organization is known as the "6-4-4 plan." Well over twenty school systems in the nation are now committed to this pattern, and many other systems are giving it serious consideration. It has been found that most administrative officers who have had experience in local systems maintaining junior colleges prefer the 6-4-4 plan to any other,⁷ and a poll of superintendents of schools in cities of 5,000 population and over throughout the country has found many more of them favorable to this plan than to any other.⁸

Investigation has shown that a separate two-year unit cannot be economically self-sufficient in respect to plant and facilities before it has an enrollment of about a thousand students.⁹

⁷ Leonard V. Koos, "Opinions of Administrators on Organizing the Junior College," *School Review*, LII (April, 1944), 215-27.

⁸ Conclusion from a study by Sebastian V. Martorana, at this writing unpublished.

⁹ Leonard V. Koos, *Integrating High School and College: The Six-Four-Four Plan at Work*, pp. 175-79. New York: Harper & Bros., 1946.

The import of this conclusion for the problem of organizational relationship of community colleges recommended for Pennsylvania is apparent when prediction is made of their enrolments. It will be recalled that, in Table 2, 93 districts were identified, through application of the ratio 1:4 of community-college to high-school enrolment, as meeting the criterion of 800 or more students in these grades to warrant considering them as possible locations for community colleges. On this ratio, a district should have around 3,500-4,000 students in Grades IX-XII to expect an enrolment of 1,000 students in the two post-high-school years. Not more than 5-10 of the 93 districts could expect to have enrolments in these two years large enough to justify the operation of separate two-year units. For all remaining districts, association or integration with high-school years would be more economical and, therefore, practically imperative.

The issue of organization of local school systems to incorporate post-high-school years is far from being one merely of economy in providing opportunities at the level, however important economy may be. It is even more the educational preferability of integration through the 6-4-4 plan or of association of post-high-school years with the senior high school. The educational advantages of the 6-4-4 plan, established in fact, have been summarized elsewhere.¹⁰

¹⁰ Leonard V. Koos, *op. cit.*, pp. 187-91.

The feasibility of the 6-4-4 plan in Pennsylvania is encouraged by the large proportion of systems in the state that have effected junior high school reorganization. Data gathered indicate that the great majority of districts have effected this reorganization. In this regard Pennsylvania is in the vanguard of the commonwealths of the nation. Junior high school reorganization is quite appropriately to be regarded as a first long step toward the 6-4-4 plan which, to be achieved, would require the two further steps of adding two post-high-school years to the senior high school and shifting Grade X to the junior high school.

The community college and district organization.—It is appropriate at this point to revert briefly to a problem touched on above, namely, that of how best to bring community-college opportunities to the population in numerous districts not meeting the criterion of 800 students in Grades IX-XII. It was suggested that this might, in many instances, be accomplished by consolidation of districts or by a plan of co-operative effort analogous to that in use in the state at lower school levels. The second of these plans has something to commend it in that voters in the districts represented may be willing to approve entrance into a co-operative arrangement when they would oppose consolidation because in consolidation the identities of districts are submerged. The co-operative arrangement is also urged because some persons regard it as a first step

toward ultimate consolidation. An objection to the plan of co-operative effort is its unwieldiness in administration, and, on this account, this report emphasizes a preference for consolidation to achieve the larger district that meets the criterion.

If or when a policy of consolidation is applied, it should involve both the post-high-school and the lower elementary- and high-school levels. Consolidation at the post-high-school level alone is sometimes urged to achieve the larger district for community-college purposes, but such a plan has the serious objections that it interferes with essential integration and articulation of post-high-school and high-school years and increases the costs of the post-high-school level. It interferes with integration and articulation by introducing the formidable barrier of autonomous control of the different levels.¹¹ Similarly, if a plan of co-operative effort is approved and used, it should avoid the defect of autonomous control of either high-school or post-high-school level.

The curriculum in community colleges.—One more aspect of the problem of organizing community colleges should be considered before attention is turned to the problem of financing them. This is the curriculum offering. Without going into the history of the curriculum in these institutions, it may be said that recent years have

seen a movement of setting up (1) a core of general education as nearly alike for all students as may be. A somewhat analogous development is influencing the curriculum in the first two years of our colleges and universities. The other main constituent of the emerging community-college curriculum for full-time students is (2) two-way opportunity for specialization in terms of the student's interest and abilities, with (a) preparation for further work in university or college and (b) preparation for vocations at the subprofessional level, usually referred to as "terminal" vocational education. In most cases the full-time student will, in addition to taking the core of general education, pursue one or the other of these two avenues of specialization. While the proportions of students in these two main groups will vary from community to community, on the average the preparatory group is much smaller than the terminal group. In addition to full-time students, community colleges provide offerings for employed youth and adults on a part-time basis, these offerings being sufficiently wide in variety to serve the important interests of this large sector of the population.

The terminal occupational portion of the educational program should be such as to meet the needs of employment in the community and in the state. The main lines of this subprofessional preparation will be in technical, commercial, agricultural, and

¹¹ Leonard V. Koos, "The Junior College and District Organization," *School Review*, LIV (September, 1946), 389-400.

homemaking (and related) pursuits, and the emphasis in each community will be on preparation for occupations in that community and for occupations widely represented in many communities in the state. The occupations should be identified and the preparation needed for employment in them planned on the basis of information derived from occupational surveys.

From the foregoing statement con-

cerning terminal occupational offerings it will be understood that the recommendation here is that the technical-vocational curriculums be developed within comprehensive community colleges and not continued in separate technical institutes operated by the local communities or by Pennsylvania State College.

[To be concluded]

THE SYMPOSIUM METHOD IN HIGH-SCHOOL TEACHING

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FOR many years there has been apparent a trend toward providing greater opportunity for self-expression, creative thinking, and student initiative through informal discussion and learning procedures in the high-school classroom.

In many classrooms, however, the docility and passivity of the majority of students in the regular learning procedures are marked characteristics. Students are usually content to allow the lion's share of the responsibility for the mental work to rest on the teacher. This is true not only in the secondary school but often in college classrooms. The elementary school has induced a considerable amount of pupil self-expression and co-operative planning in its program.

The pathway of progress in the methodology of secondary-school teaching is somewhat strewn with various types of particular methods. Some of these methods found an early demise while others, in modified form, have lived to enrich and enliven the teaching and learning process. Most of these have added a distinct contribution to the whole. Perhaps the syn-

thesis of the best of them should comprise the desirable professional equipment of the high-school teacher.

Each of these methods has usually had for its objective the shifting of a greater part of the responsibility in the learning process from the teacher to the individual student. These methods have been originated over the years to alleviate the general charge that high-school classrooms have been largely dominated by the teacher and that they have provided too little urge or opportunity for other than the brighter students to think independently, to originate ideas, to make full presentations, and to assume a greater responsibility in the learning process.

The symposium discussion, among the newer techniques in high-school and college teaching, deserves a wider trial. In the past it has been rather closely associated with the adult-education field and with meetings and conferences of various kinds. The symposium method, however, possesses many interesting possibilities also for the high-school classroom, the school assembly, the home room, school clubs and organizations, and other extra-classroom activities.

EXPLANATION OF SYMPOSIUM DISCUSSION

The term "symposium" originates from a Greek word indicating a feast or party. It was the custom of the times in that country to make these feasts lengthy affairs at which presentations of ideas and points of view on topics under consideration were made in somewhat formal manner. The term in later years has come to include a collection of short essays by different authors on a common topic—so called from the appellation given to the philosophical dialogue by the Greeks. By further extension, the term has been applied to a series of presentations by individuals on a common topic, accompanied by a more or less informal interchange of views among members of the audience.

More concisely, for our purpose, the symposium method consists of having a chairman or symposium leader, plus a group of, usually, four, five, or six persons, each of whom presents, in a concise, organized, more or less formal way, one phase of the main topic selected for discussion. These persons can be arranged, at the front of the classroom or on a stage, in a semicircle facing the audience.

CONTRASTS WITH PANEL DISCUSSION

It should be pointed out that the symposium-discussion method is often confused with the panel-discussion method, which is quite different. For a more complete explanation of the panel-discussion method, the reader

may consult another article by the present writer.¹

The panel discussion presumes a topic of somewhat controversial nature, often in the form of a question. The panel members, usually chosen because of different points of view, informally and spontaneously express varying viewpoints and thresh the topic about, hoping to arrive at some conclusions. In the symposium-discussion method the topic is not necessarily controversial but is one on which definite information is needed. The information is provided through organized, somewhat formal presentations based on specific phases of the main topic.

FUNCTIONS OF LEADER, MEMBERS, AND AUDIENCE

The function of the symposium leader is (1) to introduce each member and his topic, as he begins his presentation (this procedure is usually not necessary in a high-school class); (2) to make desirable preliminary remarks and then to make the necessary interpretive remarks connecting one presentation with other presentations and with the symposium topic; (3) to open the discussion to the audience, either following each presentation or at the close of the last presentation; and (4) to conclude the symposium with a brief summary of the combined presentations and their relationship to the symposium topic.

The function and obligation of each

¹ Roben J. Maaske, "Using the Panel Discussion Method in High School Teaching," *High School Journal*, XXI (February, 1938), 44-48.

symposium member is (1) to present his material concisely, within the time limit set, in such a way as to have a direct bearing on the topic and to integrate it to some extent with the presentations made by the other members; (2) to make his presentation informative and interesting; (3) to ask questions of another member after that person concludes his presentation, or to add some item of information, interpretation, or clarification; and (4) to answer questions directed to him during the audience-participation period.

Unless the class or audience group is too large to enable the symposium participants to be heard, it is advisable to have them remain seated while making their presentations. This arrangement adds considerably to the informality of the discussion and induces a freer exchange of remarks during the question periods.

After the discussion has been opened to the class or audience by the symposium leader, students should add their individual contributions, ask questions, or take issue with the opinions expressed. In other words, the group is then constituted as a "committee of the whole" for the purpose of general discussion.

The teacher should appoint, or ask students to volunteer, or have the class elect, members to serve on a selected symposium topic. The appointments should be made well in advance of the class session for which the discussion is scheduled, in order to allow ample time for student preparation. For the first few trials, it is desirable

for the teacher to have each student outline or write out the substance of his planned presentation. This precaution will aid in setting a good pattern for succeeding symposium discussions.

The teacher might well serve as the symposium leader for the first few times, later permitting the class to elect a leader at the time the symposium members are chosen. Once the pattern of this discussion method is understood, students normally will regard it as an honor to be chosen as symposium leader and will be eager to prepare themselves for the responsibility. The other class members should be asked to keep the coming symposium-discussion topic in mind while doing their thinking and reading, so as to be prepared to participate in it.

SCHEDULING THE SYMPOSIUM DISCUSSION

The length of a symposium discussion in a high-school classroom, or elsewhere, should be adjusted to the length of the period which is available and to the nature of the topic that is selected. For an hour period, a suggested flexible time allotment might be two or three minutes for the chairman or leader to set the background for the discussion, twenty-five to thirty minutes for the symposium members (with each member taking an equal proportion of the time, for example, a fourth or a fifth), fifteen to twenty minutes for audience participation, and about three minutes for the summary by the leader. For a forty-five-minute period, the time will be

proportionally less for each symposium member. The time allotments suggested here cover nearly the full-time period, but the symposium topic may be developed in less time, particularly if only four members are included.

Caution should be exercised by the teacher, particularly for the first few trials, so that the time scheduled is not too long. It is much better to schedule it too short. Each member should be informed regarding the length of his time, whether he is allotted four minutes, five minutes, etc. To insure that each member will stay within the time limit, a timekeeper should be appointed to indicate when a half-minute or a minute remains and also when time is up for each member. This warning can be given by raising a left hand as the preliminary signal and both hands at the close of the allotted time. Other similar plans can be utilized for the purpose.

The teacher and students together can make modifications in the time limits and in the other procedures suggested in this article as they profit from experience with the symposium discussion. The method, of course, should not be overworked. As previously indicated, it is better suited to certain high-school courses than to others. It can, however, be used to good advantage as one of several ways to make the high-school classroom more like a real life laboratory. For example, it is a good method for introducing a new subject and also for summarizing materials and for general review purposes.

SELECTION OF TOPICS FOR SYMPOSIUMS

Symposium topics should be chosen on the basis of their direct or indirect outgrowth from the subject materials of a particular course. They should be somewhat objective and pointed, rather than vague and philosophical in nature. Much of the success of the symposium discussion depends on the careful selection of the topic and the appropriateness of the phases selected for presentation, as well as on the interest it holds for members of the class or other audience.

As means of judging the success or effectiveness of a symposium discussion, the following criteria might be applied: (1) Was the topic one of general interest to the class? (2) Was the attention and interest of the class maintained throughout the discussion? (3) Were the presentations concise, well organized, and informative? (4) Did the class-audience participate to a satisfactory extent? (5) Were the conclusions satisfactory for the topic that was discussed?

The following examples of topics for symposium discussions in various fields at the high-school level may be found helpful, as well as provocative, in stimulating thinking to originate other similar and interesting ones:

1. English and Literature

a) What claims to fame do these modern authors have?

- (1) Carl Sandburg, (2) John Galsworthy, (3) Thomas Hardy, (4) Robert Frost, (5) Somerset Maugham

- b) Characteristics and contributions of the following periods in English literature
 - (1) Elizabethan, (2) Eighteenth Century, (3) Victorian, (4) Romantic, (5) contemporary
 - c) The influence of Edgar Allan Poe on modern detective stories from the standpoint of:
 - (1) Style, (2) characters, (3) setting, (4) mysteriousness, (5) plot
 - d) Contributions of the following characters to the dramatic action of Macbeth
 - (1) Banquo, (2) Lady Macbeth, (3) Macduff, (4) Macbeth, (5) the three witches
2. Foreign Languages
 - a) Comparisons and contrasts of Roman and American life in:
 - (1) Citizenship, (2) family living, (3) laws, (4) business, (5) government
 - b) Importance of the following factors in learning Spanish (or German, etc.)
 - (1) Vocabulary, (2) speaking, (3) writing, (4) grammar, (5) reading
 - c) Interesting historic places in France (in oral French)
 - (1) Louvre, (2) Notre Dame, (3) Versailles, (4) Paris, (5) Riviera
 3. Commercial and Business
 - a) Relative importance of the following traits in a stenographer on the job:
 - (1) Accuracy, (2) dependability, (3) speed, (4) punctuality, (5) loyalty to employer, (6) appearance
 - b) Importance of the following in keeping a job in a business firm:
 - (1) Ability to do the work assigned, (2) ability to get along with people effectively, (3) ability to inspire confidence of the employer
 - c) Advantages and disadvantages of the following positions:
 - (1) Filing clerk, (2) office manager, (3) stenographer, (4) typist, (5) secretary
 4. Mathematics
 - a) Contributions to the field of mathematics by:
 - (1) Thales, (2) Pythagoras, (3) Plato, (4) Euclid, (5) Archimedes
 - b) Fundamental applications of geometry as used by:
 - (1) Farmers, (2) builders, (3) homemakers, (4) architects, (5) designers
 - c) Relative importance of the following factors in mastering mathematics
 - (1) Class attention, (2) asking questions, (3) home study, (4) reading ability, (5) ability to concentrate
 5. Music
 - a) Characteristics of the compositions of the following musicians
 - (1) Berlioz, (2) Chopin, (3) Wagner, (4) Bach, (5) Verdi, (6) Mendelssohn
 - b) Chief developments in the following periods in music history
 - (1) Period of Gregory the Great, (2) Palestrina, (3) Monteverde, (4) "Romantic" musicians, (5) Twentieth Century
 - c) Chief characteristics of the contribution of the following instruments to good band music
 - (1) French horn, (2) cornet, (3) clarinet, (4) Sousaphone, (5) trombone, (6) piccolo
 6. Social Sciences
 - a) Contributions of the following factors to the prevention of poverty
 - (1) Public schools, (2) thrift habits, (3) industry, (4) public-health agencies, (5) insurance
 - b) Opportunities for diminishing crime through:
 - (1) Recreation programs, (2) public education, (3) prison reforms, (4) removal of "crime-breeding" places, (5) parental responsibilities
 - c) Picturization of colonial conditions as shown by:
 - (1) Religious life, (2) educational op-

portunities, (3) home furnishings,
(4) food, (5) type of houses

7. Health and Physical Education

- a) Contributions to the health program of our school by:
 - (1) Teacher, (2) student, (3) parent, (4) school nurse, (5) coach
- b) Why I like my favorite sport
 - (1) Track, (2) baseball, (3) football, (4) tennis, (5) basketball
- c) Ways to develop good sportsmanship in a school by:
 - (1) Players, (2) principal, (3) coach, (4) teachers, (5) parents, (6) fans

8. Industrial and Home Arts

- a) Contribution of industrial-arts training to the future citizen in his
 - (1) Home, (2) vocation, (3) leisure time
- b) Relative importance to a future homemaker of training in:
 - (1) Nutrition, (2) clothing construction and selection, (3) food preparation, (4) child care
- c) Degree of practical carry-over from school into life of:
 - (1) English and literature, (2) art, (3) industrial and home arts, (4) music, (5) science and mathematics

9. Sciences

- a) Function of each of the following in the digestive process
 - (1) Mouth, (2) esophagus, (3) stomach, (4) small intestine, (5) large intestine
- b) Specific contributions of high-school science to:
 - (1) Health, (2) leisure, (3) vocational plans, (4) college preparation
- c) Ways in which a knowledge of chemistry can be helpful to:
 - (1) Housewife, (2) doctor, (3) painter, (4) nurse, (5) farmer
- d) Special contributions of the following to the field of biology
 - (1) Huxley, (2) Darwin, (3) Schwann, (4) Mendel, (5) Burbank

10. Art

- a) The nationality of the painter and description of one picture painted by each of the following
 - (1) Rembrandt, (2) Titian, (3) Velásquez, (4) Renoir, (5) Michelangelo
- b) Relative place of each of the following in art structure
 - (1) Design, (2) color, (3) lighting, (4) perspective, (5) figure construction
- c) Contribution of the following fields to art as a whole
 - (1) Sculpture, (2) painting, (3) architecture, (4) crafts

IMPLICATIONS

The examples above will suffice to illustrate the variety of topics which are suitable for symposium discussions in high-school subject fields. It is hoped, moreover, that this list may stimulate teachers to originate other suitable topics. Students also can help in selecting pertinent and interesting symposium-discussion topics.

One of the chief problems in high-school teaching is to provide for students opportunities for independent study, learning, and presentations which are increasingly mature. The symposium discussion is one means of helping to solve this problem in the classroom. It places responsibility, not only on the individuals for their particular assignment, but also on the class group for making a presentation which is interesting, informative, and of value to the entire class. To the extent that high-school pupils can be induced, through active participation, to accept more responsibility for learning, the greater and more vital will that learning become.

PROBLEMS IN THE APPLICATION OF SOCIOMETRY TO SCHOOLS

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EVERY TEACHER A SOCIOMETRICIAN

THE teacher today, if one judges by the content and number of courses offered by schools of education, should be a high-powered technician possessing an imposing assortment of skills and techniques. In addition to his teaching role, the teacher becomes, or is expected to become, something of a counselor, mental-hygienist, occupational adviser, tester, individual and group therapist, social worker, and community worker, all in one. When a new technique, full of promise, including diagrams, hovers on the horizon, the educator is likely to take it over and add it to his repertoire of techniques and roles. Thus, with the advent of sociometry, every teacher is also a sociometrician.

The advent and nurture of a new approach in the social sciences usually proceed under the fanfare of a group of disciples who go forth to spread and apply the new gospel under the benign benediction of the cult leader, such as Korzybski in semantics or Moreno in sociometry. If the approach looks simple and also appears practical, as sociometry does, it tends to be picked

up readily by the applied social sciences. Obviously, a good idea can be "worked to death" in the first flush of enthusiasm. While sociometry is not regarded by educators and teachers as a panacea, there are, nevertheless, "great expectations." It is probably the tool or instrument best suited to help a teacher worry through inter-pupil relations. Teachers' statements about the technique read like descriptions of conversion experiences (7). Despite numerous caveats, this general tenor is reflected in "A Sociometric Work Guide for Teachers," which suggests the discovery of the *summum bonum* for the study of social interaction (21, 8, 13, and 17). Such finality of conviction is likely to fill the researcher with a certain amount of scepticism and misgiving. The following discussion deals with some questions and problems that arose during an exploratory research project that was carried out in conjunction with the Willimantic Teachers College, with the assistance of Miss Pauline Peters. Other questions and problems grew out of the reading of the literature in the field.

PITFALLS IN A ROUTINE APPROACH

Working up sociometric questions can become something of an intellectual game—an end in itself. From Moreno's original three or four test questions (15), lists containing from twenty to thirty items have been constructed. Such a grab bag of questions is naturally convenient to have at hand, but, whether four or twenty-four questions, the essential problem is the same: What is the tester trying to get at with a particular question? Why prefer one type of question to another? What is the superiority of a question relating to proximity in seating over one relating to a work or play situation? An answer offered is that, from any sociometric question, "... the entire structural pattern of relationships can be seen at a glance . . ." (21:6) after the data have been organized. This idea assumes that any question is of equal comparability and of equal effectiveness in determining the relationships among children. Such an assumption, as will be seen, is false.

The type of question which is asked—that is, its wording and content—makes a difference in the results. A question may be so vague as to convey little meaning. For example, we have found:

You get a new game for Christmas. It takes four people to play the game. Which three of your classmates would you invite to play with you?

Such a question presents the child with a semantic problem, since the

phrase "new game" can mean anything. If the child pumped some content into the phrase, would the type of game assumed by the girl or boy influence the direction of his choices? References to hikes or picnics, to use another example encountered, are likely to convey different meanings to boys and girls, since hikes and picnics are not identical social situations. The wording of a question may induce girls to jot down only girls in their choices and, similarly, boys to mention only boys.

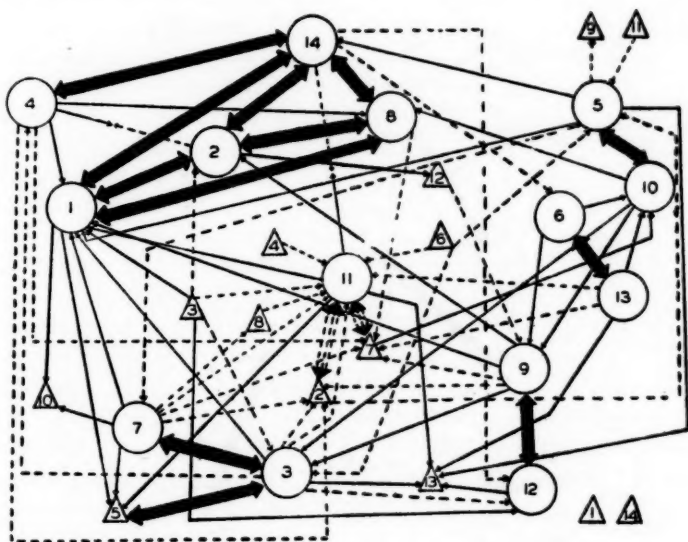
Of greater significance is the content of the questions; for it is the content which elicits and organizes choices. If it is assumed that a work situation, a play situation, or a seating arrangement are equivalent social situations, then a consistency of choices may be expected. (This statement raises the question of reliability. Repeated testing of certain groups apparently results in high correlation [11:30]. For example, Jennings describes a situation in which reliability implies a block or static universe in which there is, theoretically, no place for change [11:35]. Here the construction of a block universe is justified. The problem of social change is perhaps the least explored field.)

If the assumption of equivalency is untenable (21), no special consistency may be expected in choices, with the possible exception of extreme cases. Choice is determined by the function that is stated in the content of the question. With different criteria or questions, different configurations of

choices become manifest. This change in choice pattern is shown in Sociograms I and II.

In the first instance, with a criterion of seating proximity, the diagram shows, in general, a dominant clique surrounded by a fringe of pairs. Partners of these pairs also center on the

shows the entire structural pattern of relationships at a glance? Indeed, how many sociograms would be necessary to demonstrate the "entirety" of such relationships? For purposes of social therapy, which sociogram is the most diagnostic? Which of the two questions is more significant to the chil-



SOCIOGRAM I.—Positive choices (unbroken lines) and rejections (broken lines) made by pupils when asked which four persons they would like to have sit near them in school. Circles represent girls; triangles, boys.

dominant group. There is a rejection pattern involving one girl and several boys. In the second instance, with a criterion of organizing a club or gang and without limiting choices to the classroom, there is neither a dominant clique nor a fringe of pairs. Choices are centrifugal, directed toward individuals outside the classroom. The pattern of rejection, however, is much the same.

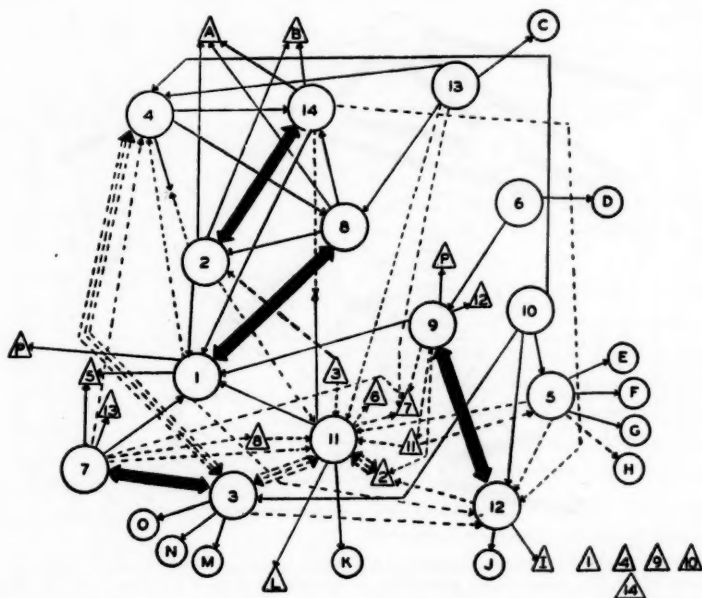
Which of these two sociograms

dren, seating arrangement or clubbing activities? The meaning of the sociometric question is of paramount importance, not only from the point of view of the children, but also from the standpoint of the intention of the tester. The two depicted sociograms underscore this point. They also imply that single questions which limit choices within a classroom miss the wider context of social relations.

If the sociometric technique is used, it should be used to its fullest extent in order to be most effective. In so far as teachers may avoid certain phases of it, such circumscription is likely to distort results. There is a certain reluctance on their part to ask for both positive choices and rejections. Pre-

ference in relationships will become apparent. Without doubt, an interpretation will be profoundly influenced by the type of sociogram constructed. One based on positive choices presents an incomplete picture.

It should be emphasized that cross-sex choices should not be omitted, pre-



SOCIOGRAM II.—Positive choices (unbroken lines) and rejections (broken lines) made by pupils when asked with whom they would like to form a club or a gang. Circles represent girls; triangles, boys.

sumably this aversion is based on the grounds that, according to progressive principles, it is best to accentuate the positive and avoid the negative. The positions of Pupils 11, 4, 5, and 12 in the two sociograms become significant precisely because of the rejections. If the reader can imaginatively cross out the rejection lines, the marked dif-

culty because heterosexual attitudes are important in the process of socialization. Even if our culture appears to prescribe that boys and girls should associate among themselves at certain age levels, it does not mean that socialization and interaction does not take place. Boys may choose boys in terms of a sociometric question, but,

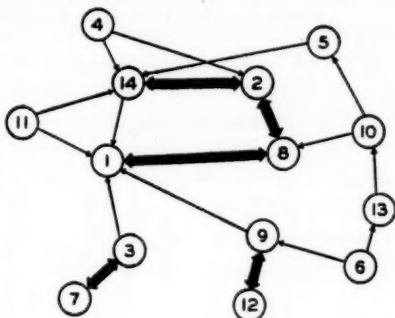
nevertheless, heterosexual teasing in the classroom, for example, may be an important aspect of the interaction patterns. If there are deviants from the culture pattern, the sociometric technique should try to discover them.

The number of positive and negative choices which a child is asked to make also affects the type of sociogram that is constructed. A network of relations based on two choices will be less complex than one based on four choices or one based on no limits. No choice, however, is as significant as making a choice. We have found that children who are secure in a class tend to make few negative choices. ("We like everybody.") Consequently, a child should not be asked to make a choice when he has none to make, and, on the other hand, he should not be asked to make omnibus choices or to evaluate everybody.

To illustrate the significance of the points just discussed, Sociogram I has been reconstructed into Sociogram III. The latter sociogram is based only on the first two choices of the four that were made. Cross-sex choices were omitted, and this resulted in reducing the number of choices of some individuals to one. The differences between the two sociograms are marked and illustrate how the technique used determines the resulting sociogram.

Table 1 summarizes choices on three questions for an eighth-grade class, including both girls and boys. A table like this gives a rapid overview of the choice status of the members of a class, particularly if both positive

choices and rejections are included. A summation of choices is a statistical convenience and, at a glance, tells comparative ratings. It does not tell, however, what is of primary interest: which types of social relations obtain between which individuals and why.



SOCIOGRAM III.—Reconstruction of Sociogram I based on first two choices made and omitting cross-sex choices.

Understanding, of course, is the objective of the technique, and that constitutes another general problem.

WHAT DOES IT MEAN?

If a teacher wants to undertake remedial work in terms of social relations, he must first know which children relate to each other and how. This knowledge is, in part, derived from the sociometric test. The teacher must also know why the children relate to each other the way they do. This information is not derivable from the sociometric test and sociogram. Student practice reports which we have examined reveal this problem. Relations may be depicted, but an explanation is wanting. Thus the reports

have expressed a sort of groping and floundering for explanatory principles. The construction of a sociogram is but half the analysis, even then one has to be sure also of understanding properly the significance of the sociogram.

which he has a function, for instance, in which he lives or works. It revealed that the underlying psychological structure of a group differs widely from its social manifestations; that group structures vary directly in relation to the age level of the members; that different criteria may produce different

TABLE 1
NUMBER OF CHOICES AND NUMBER OF REJECTIONS RECEIVED AMONG FOURTEEN
GIRLS AND FOURTEEN BOYS ACCORDING TO THREE SOCIOMETRIC CRITERIA

PUPIL	NUMBER OF CHOICES				NUMBER OF REJECTIONS				OUTSIDE CHOICES ON CRITERIA 2
	Criterion 1	Criterion 2	Criterion 3	Total	Criterion 1	Criterion 2	Criterion 3	Total	
Girls:									
1.....	10	6	5	21					1
2.....	5	3	3	11	1	1		2	2
3.....	4	2	6	12	1	2	2	5	3
4.....	1	2	1	4	2	4		6	1
5.....	1	1	1	3	3	1	3	7	4
6.....	1		1	2	1		1	2	1
7.....	1	1	3	5	1		1	2	
8.....	5	3	3	11					
9.....	3	2	1	6	1		1	2	1
10.....	4		1	5					
11.....					10	10	6	26	2
12.....	2	2	2	6	2	4	2	8	2
13.....	1		1	2					1
14.....	6	4	4	14			1	1	
Boys:									
1.....	3	2	1	6	1		1	2	1
2.....	3	1	2	6	7	5	3	15	1
3.....	3	1	3	7			2	2	
4.....	3	2	3	8		1		1	1
5.....	10	7	11	28					1
6.....	4	2	1	7	1	3	1	5	
7.....	1			1	11	5	6	22	
8.....	1	1		2	6	4	2	12	
9.....	4	1	2	7	1			1	2
10.....	7	4	4	15			1	1	1
11.....	2	1	2	5		1		1	2
12.....	7	8	10	25					
13.....	5	2	6	13					
14.....	3	4	3	10					

Varieties of possible perspectives of interpretation are suggested in the following generalizations, which Moreno claims were derived wholly from the sociometric test.

It [the sociometric test] determined the position of each individual in a group in

groupings of the same persons or they may produce the same groupings; that groups of different function, as for instance, home groups and work groups, tend toward diverse structures; that people would group themselves differently if they could; that these spontaneous groups and the functions that individuals act or intend to act within

them have a definite bearing upon the conduct of each individual and upon the group as a whole; and that spontaneous groupings and forms of groupings which are superimposed upon the former provide a potential source of conflict. It was found that chosen relations often differ and that the position of an individual cannot be fully realized if not all the individuals and groups to which he is emotionally related are included. It disclosed that the organization of a group cannot be fully studied if all related groups or individuals are not included, that individuals and groups are often to such an extent interlocked that the whole community to which they belong has to become the scope of the sociometric test [15: 11].

While these generalizations were derived from a limited range of social situations—a few public schools and a state institution for girls—they show that the sociometric test results not only in a wide variety of, but also in inconsistent, conclusions. The interpretation of a sociogram, as one would infer from this welter of generalizations, is not a simple process. This diversity suggests the need for a theoretical framework in which these inconsistencies are sublated by general principles. It might be added that Moreno uses many other sources and techniques, in addition to the sociogram and sociometric test, to make his interpretations. Supplementary techniques are necessary.

In the interpretation of the sociogram, there is a tendency to regard the diagram as something ultimately real and inclusive.

These figures represent actual classrooms and real children. In some cases there has been a slight simplification [as the exclusion

of cross-sex choices] or omission of some details [7: 384].

Simplifications and omissions apparently are irrelevant, and the result is doubtless more real. Obviously, a sociogram refers to something, but the question is: To what? The diagram refers to the positive choices and rejections among individuals according to a specific criterion. In other words, the group depicted in a diagram is a construction. Out of the many possible relations among individuals, the investigator selects two or three which, for certain reasons, he thinks are significant and, then, after securing the choices, constructs a network of interrelationships.

Any sociogram demonstrates this point. Take the two sociograms which are depicted in this article. In each, there is a different network of choice relations. Do the sociograms refer to actual classrooms? No. They refer only to choices among girls and to those boys involved in cross-sex choices. A certain number of boys are omitted. Are they unimportant? The teacher is not included. Is the teacher unimportant? For further discussion, see Baxter (3), Anderson (2), and Lippitt (14). There seems to be an assumption that choice relations are also functional relations or imply actual relations. That inference is debatable. Do the sociograms refer to real children? In a strict sense, no; for the child is defined in terms of the criterion: "child-I would-like-to-sit-next-to," and no more. If it is kept in mind that the sociogram is a construction,

a convention, or a graphic statement of choices, dangers of reification may be avoided (there is nothing sacred in a sociogram), and the teacher may take a much more flexible attitude in interpreting and using it.

There is another phase in the interpretation of a sociogram that has raised a question: the significance of the different choices that a child makes. Two mutual first choices may be regarded as expressing a functional relationship. Are succeeding choices of equal significance? Suppose A chooses B first, but B chooses A fourth. Is this type of choice relation equivalent to mutual first choices? It is usually so diagrammed. The same question applies to rejections. If only mutual first choices in Sociogram I were diagrammed, the result would be three pairs. The importance, then, of the question, as suggested by this illustration, is that cliques and pair groupings which are fictitious may be diagrammed. The construction of such nonexistent groupings is based on the principle that reciprocal choices are diagrammed in a similar way, as if there were no difference. To overcome this difficulty, the technique of writing in the choice position has been adopted. To use the above illustration, the line from A would have a 1 over it; the line from B, a 4. This convention still does not tell what these choices mean, except that individuals rate one another differently. How much can be inferred as to the actual, functioning relations?

SUPPLEMENTARY TECHNIQUES

It has already been suggested that supplementary techniques are necessary. In so far as the sociometric question and the sociogram do not tell why positive choices and rejections are made, the interview is one of the more important ways of securing this information. Moreno considers the interview an integral part of the sociometric approach. It is from the interview that the evaluation or interpretation of one child by another is secured. It is in terms of such evaluations and interpretations that children respond to one another. Whether a child actually has all the liabilities or assets mentioned in a particular interview is unimportant. What is important is the picture of the child's personality as depicted in the interview, the points of evaluation, and the "traits" which are imputed. Without some conception of such evaluations, especially as they pertain to particular children, the teacher operates in a social vacuum.

Because there may be several choices or rejections with regard to any particular child, interviews with all the children who are involved would serve as a check on each child and might bring out common points. Naturally, in the course of interviewing it is necessary to find out as much as possible about the likes and dislikes that are common to the group and differentiate them from those primarily individual in character. For example, in the case of a rejected girl, it was found that she was considered "boy

crazy," by both girls and boys. Such evaluations suggest limits to guess-who tests. As common points of evaluation are worked together, a general scheme may be devised by which a high rating or rejection becomes understandable. The following example illustrates some points which we discovered. Rejection of girls by girls, in this particular class, brought forth these responses:

Always wants to be head, thinks she can boss everything and everybody, acts big, thinks she's smarter than everybody; gets mad, fights (slaps, punches); can't have fun with, insulting, criticizes dress or lipstick, shy, doesn't talk, not dependable, fresh; boy crazy, talks about boys all the time.

These particular responses are related to the following situations: domination, aggressive behavior, social or personal evaluation, heterosexual interest.

With regard to positive evaluations, girls choose girls on the following counts:

Polite, kind, quiet, pleasant, good-natured, gentle, good sport, never gets mad, never been mean, doesn't get grouchy, easy to get along with, full of fun, playful, tells jokes, smart, helps you a lot, gets own work done, doesn't copy, likes same things, doesn't always talk or talk too much, doesn't get me into trouble.

The first of the statements refers to personal characteristics which are significant for classroom decorum and possibly teacher approval; the others refer to school work and its execution and classroom decorum. Many of

these responses need additional investigation to clarify their meaning, but they do suggest a wide range of social relations and evaluations, from mutual aid to conflict. They suggest that some interpupil relations will be primarily disorganized, antagonistic; others will be primarily co-operative, etc. They suggest something of tensions and anxieties.

These points of pupil-pupil values indicate a third general problem: Under what conditions do such evaluations take place? This question leads to the problem of explanation and theoretical perspective.

EXPLANATION AND THEORY

It is to be inferred from a statement of this question that the sociometric test, plus the interview, has a limited value. The data derived from these techniques have to be placed within a theory of social relations and groups (10, 26, and 24). Some of the problems in this field will be discussed briefly. The following points of explanation have been offered by researchers: trait analysis, the family's status in a community's social structure, and the institutional organization of the school.

Trait analysis usually involves certain variables, such as chronological age, mental age, intelligence quotient, height, weight, scholastic standing, and a series of social or personality traits ferreted out by guess-who questions. Results of investigations are inconsistent and, therefore, inconclusive (23, 1, 18, 4, 8, and 22). The hy-

potheses underlying these variables have nowhere been adequately formulated. Most of the traits are devoid of cultural context. Chronological age, for example, is of no significance unless social-cultural meanings are attached to it. Teen-agers and teen-age problems are significant in our culture, not by virtue of the age of the children, but by reason of the social categories to which they are assigned and by reason of the behavior expected in each category. What is important is the analysis of the content and implication of the social category.

The second general approach assumes that the school reflects and perpetuates the class structure of a community, so that friendship and reputation parallel a pupil's social-class position, or, paraphrasing Neugarten, "the mirror-like reflection between the family's social position and the friendship status of the child" (16:308). Other studies show similar findings (25, 9, 12, 5, 20). Some studies indicate that cliques in the school are formed on class lines and thereby affect inclusion and exclusion in social, athletic, and scholarly activities. Pupils evaluate one another in terms of the social-class stereotypes derived from their parents. This type of pupil interaction is facilitated by teachers, who, themselves, come largely from a middle-class background, who defer to the children from upper-class and upper-middle-class families, and who discriminate against children from lower classes. In this manner a child is socialized through the school to fit the

particular social class from which he came. If the teacher is to understand the behavior of children and of the material gathered from sociometric questions, the understanding will have to be in terms of social-class-children. While this general hypothesis—that pupil relations are determined by the family position in the community's class structure—in the writers' opinions, needs further research, it does suggest an explicit frame of reference.

The third perspective assumes that the school, as a special system, contains a unique configuration of cultural elements and values; in other words, that there are specialized norms prescribing social conduct and positions or statuses particular to, and relevant only to, the school. To interpret the data from the sociograms would thus involve an awareness of institutional structure and norms of behavior as elements in the classroom situation. What do teachers expect in terms of conduct from pupils in the classroom, in the study or library, in the halls, in the cafeteria, on the playground, with regard to relations between the sexes? Are such expectations explicitly formulated in rules or are they implicit? What do pupils expect from one another in similar situations? The phrases evaluating conduct which are mentioned above suggest the operation of these norms (6). In addition, the following positions in the class and school structure are important: monitor, traffic squad, messenger, room jobs, class officers, etc., and temporary positions on committees, in plays, and

the like. Who fills these positions, under what conditions the positions are held, the esteem or disesteem attached to a position—all would constitute points of analysis. The significance of informal groupings would also come under analysis.

The outcome would perhaps be a series of positional or stratification profiles by which a pupil's status and status changes could be plotted. Analysis of this kind presupposes a workable theory of social groups and social relations, coupled with a rigorous analysis of the school as a type of institutional association. For the teacher, submerged in the everyday routine of his job, an awareness of norms and statuses is perhaps unlikely to develop, precisely because the norms and statuses are routine and represent the elements in the teacher's own conduct within the interaction patterns of the school.

CONCLUSION—WHERE ANGELS FEAR TO TREAD

The last section of this article underscores the current emphasis on the sociocultural facets of human behavior. The sociometric technique also focuses on interpersonal relationships. It is true that any technique has its valid use, but social analysis is more than asking a few questions and drawing diagrams. A routine, mechanical application of a technique in human relations is likely to do more harm than good. Admittedly, the social technician has the right to expect adequate techniques and principles from

the researcher. Good theory means good practice, but the type of modifications and changes introduced in translating theory into practice can result in a perversion of both. An uncritical approach to sociometry results, precisely, in misunderstanding and misapplication, whether the error occurs in the specifics of the technique, the interpretation of results, or the want of explanatory principles. If educators aspire to convert teachers into sociometricians, the title should, perhaps, be spelled with a rather small s.

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WE MUST TELL THE STORY

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INTERPRETING THE SCHOOLS

OVER and over again we are told that we must interpret the schools to the public. This fact is accepted by school administrators and teachers throughout our secondary schools. But what shall we tell?

Programs of public relations, designed to help the public to understand the schools better, are being carried on in most communities. Yet there seems to be one aspect of the schools' programs concerning which both parents and children are still in doubt. That aspect embraces the most fundamental area of American secondary education. The public, and this includes the children in our high schools, does not seem to understand the purposes of modern secondary education and shows little or no understanding of the need for, and the value of, most of the courses and activities which are offered in high school.

Teachers of the most formal college-preparatory subjects state that, because of parental pressure, many children have to take college preparatory work when they are totally unfitted for, and uninterested in, going to college. Teachers of commercial and shop courses make the same remarks about

the use of parental influence to keep students out of their courses. Guidance workers and principals verify the teachers' statements by making the same accusation.

Why did all this come about? We all know, so the explanation can be brief. It is the story of the development of our secondary schools. The Latin grammar school, with its emphasis on the classics as a preparation for college, enrolled the intellectually élite. Academies were established in an effort to get away from the classics into a curriculum designed to meet the needs of college-preparatory students and also to furnish terminal education for students who did not intend to enter college. The high school was set up to educate students for life, but it was not long before the college-preparatory curriculum dominated the scene. Enrolments in the academies and high schools grew, but slowly.

The great growth in secondary-school enrolments has taken place between 1890 and the present time. From a total of about 200,000 in 1890, our high-school population has risen to approximately 7,000,000 in 1940. The high school today is expected to educate not only the intellectually élite but *all* the children of *all* the people.

The great growth in high-school enrolment has brought about the need for basic changes in the curriculum. The implications of this growth in high-school population for the secondary-school curriculum are not properly understood by the general public. It is imperative, therefore, that more effort be made in public-relations programs to explain that the purpose of secondary education is to educate *all* the children of *all* the people and that this purpose necessitates the inclusion in the high-school curriculum of experiences designed to meet the needs of the noncollege-preparatory group, as well as the addition of the junior college to our system of secondary education. American businessmen, the Army and Navy, parents—in fact, all critics as well as supporters of our schools—should be helped to understand, through bulletins, articles, talks before parent-teacher associations or civic clubs, and through any other means at the disposal of the schools, that a high-school diploma does not guarantee that the holder's ability is of the highest grade. It is merely an assurance that the holder has undergone educational experiences which place his ability on a far higher plane than would have been the case if his education had ceased at the end of elementary school.

Information given to the public regarding the purposes of secondary education needs to be supplemented by explaining the values of various courses offered by our high schools and

junior colleges. With an understanding of the curriculum offerings, parental pressure to take the "respectable" college-preparatory courses, regardless of the children's interests and abilities, should ultimately decline. Criticism on the part of the general public should decrease as well. Most individuals want the best for their children, and they must be helped to understand what the best is.

THE TEACHER'S ROLE

Administrators are not the only persons to take part in this program. Teachers also have a basic role to play. Children, like their parents, do not know the values of the subjects they study. Unfortunately many students finish a course without ever knowing why they took it or what application to make of the information and skills they have obtained. Teachers should know the importance of the courses they teach. They should spend more time than they now generally do in "selling" the practical values of their courses, and of education in general, to their classes. Work which is meaningful is basic to good learning.

Americans have a sort of vague faith in education. Let us help replace this vague faith with real understanding of the purposes of secondary education and of the values of the curriculum. We—that is, administrators, supervisors, and teachers—must all tell the story of modern secondary education.

SELECTED REFERENCES ON THE EXTRA-CURRICULUM¹

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A LARGE number of the current writings on the extra-curriculum reflect a still lively interest in the following controversial areas: additional compensation for sponsorship, scheduling difficulties in overloaded school days, amount of emphasis which should be placed on athletics, incorporation of the extra-curriculum into the subject-matter offerings at both high-school and junior-college levels, and financial support for activities.

Many of the writings continue to consist in reports of exemplary activities in particular schools, representing the reporting sponsors' viewpoints concerning their benefits to participants. Much faith is placed in the fact that these activities give more opportunity for lifelike learning experiences, while some persons claim that their value lies in their contribution to public relations. Prominent

here are those activities which tend to eliminate interracial conflict.

An interesting newcomer in the activity program is the international-relations club. This might well be expected, however, in view of the present world unrest and the defense of democratic ideals. A unique book indicates growing interest in the use of radio, not merely as a medium of instruction, but as a means of developing more facility in self-expression and better understanding of broadcasting techniques.

Also included are several informative reports of studies relating to the status of student government, methods of determining student interest in club activities, and elimination of undesirable contests. Most students of the extra-curriculum would probably agree that the activity program should continue to receive emphasis in secondary schools and colleges, but there remain many unsolved problems regarding organization, administration, and methodology.

¹ See also Item 561 (Stout), Item 590 (Crafton), and Item 591 (Meyer) in the list of selected references appearing in the November, 1948, number of the *School Review* and Item 122 (Nelson) in the February, 1949, number of the same journal.

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Reports how a junior high school safety court, through close supervision by the adviser and co-operation with other staff members, helped to reduce the number of safety violations and to teach some desirable habits.
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A bulletin designed to assist science teachers. It presents objectives, organizational methods for meeting objectives, types of science clubs and their activities, and source materials for sponsors.
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385. *The 1948 Student Council Handbook*. Washington: National Association of Secondary-School Principals, 1948. Pp. 144.
Contains a report of recommendations of discussion groups on practices and procedures, descriptions of actual community projects, and information on how to organize student-council conventions.
386. PINGREY, JENNIE L. "Club Sponsorship Affects Our Personal Lives," *Clearing House*, XXII (January, 1948), 276-78.
Presents the reflections of a classroom teacher on how her direction of school clubs has broadened her own living, especially since she was obliged to learn something about the clubs' activities herself before attempting to direct them.
387. PUTMAN, IVAN, JR. "So You're Planning an Arena Play," *Junior College Journal*, XVIII (January, 1948), 247-53.
How the arena style of play production may solve the problem of inadequate dramatic facilities is demonstrated by a director's experience with this type of play at Yakima Valley Junior College in Washington. Considers practical questions of the prospective director.
388. REINHART, MIRIAM M. "Little Theater Digs Deep," *School Activities*, XX (November, 1948), 95, 100.

Indicates how participation in dramatic activity can help in removing some common racial prejudices.

389. RILEY, MILDRED. "Student Participation in School Government," *Social Education*, XII (March, 1948), 119-22.

A sponsor of student government in a Springfield (Missouri) high school discusses critically the functions of this activity in the school program, suggesting how it can contribute more effectively to the achievements of democratic objectives by fostering full participation.

390. ROSENBERG, LEONARD Y. "Sport Clinics," *School Activities*, XIX (May, 1948), 283-84, 292.

Describes a novel program of boys' clinics in basketball, boxing, baseball, football, billiards, and bowling. Although still in the experimental stage, the program has drawn many boys off the streets in New York.

391. SHARPE, JEAN MACNEILL. "Student Libraries," *Wilson Library Bulletin*, XXIII (September, 1948), 70-71.

Discusses the benefits which come from contests staged in colleges to stimulate the interests of students for developing a library of their own, including a description of Rockford (Illinois) College's successful contests.

392. SILVER, JEAN. "Our United Nations Club," *New York State Education*, XXXV (May, 1948), 615-16.

Pictures a successful club formed at a high school in Rochester (New York) to promote the interest of the student body in international relations.

393. SNYDER, DAVID P. "Financing Inter-scholastic Athletic Programs," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, XXIII (February, 1948), 85-88.

Defends equalization of support as a principle in the financing of the school's athletic program, listing eight advantages which accrued to the schools in the Oakland (California) Athletic League as a result of applying this principle.

394. STEINBERG, THELMA. "For Help in Choosing a Club," *School Activities*, XX (September, 1948), 19-20.

Suggests that students can be assisted in making wise choices for club participation, especially if brief statements of each club's purposes and program are circulated at the time of selection.

395. STEVENS, DORIS. "Shakespeare Is Fun," *School Activities*, XX (October, 1948), 54-55.

Describes how a high-school speech instructor was able to overcome practical difficulties and learning difficulties in guiding the production of a Shakespearean comedy by her students. Emphasizes the cultural advantages of such activities.

396. STOUT, MINARD W. "Minnesota Principals Evaluate Contests," *North Central Association Quarterly*, XXII (April, 1948), 375-78.

In an effort to assist administrators in eliminating possible undesirable activities from the many high-school contests sponsored by various organizations, lists twelve criteria developed by a state contest committee for screening the contests. Also poses some unsolved problems in this area.

397. STUART, MARION L. "The Dramatic Curriculum," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXII (January, 1948), 81-85.

Urges that more class time be given to speech training, bringing the school's dramatic activities out of the extra-curriculum and into the actual curriculum so that instructors can do an adequate job.

398. TOMPKINS, ELLSWORTH. "A Visit to Midwood," *School Life*, XXXI (November, 1948), 1-3.

Some of the pressing problems of organizing and conducting student government are analyzed in light of observed strengths and weaknesses in one school's program.

EDUCATIONAL WRITINGS



REVIEWS AND BOOK NOTES

Ferment in Education: The Problems, Responsibilities, and Opportunities of Universities in This Time. A Symposium at the Installation of George Dinsmore Stoddard as President of the University of Illinois. Urbana, Illinois: University of Illinois Press, 1948. Pp. 224. \$3.00.

Ferment in Education presents the educational addresses delivered in connection with the installation of the new president of the University of Illinois, Dr. George D. Stoddard. These inaugural exercises occurred at the very moment when every campus was surcharged with a sense of change and urgency, indicating the approach of a climax in the race between educational purpose and cultural defeat.

Specifically Dr. Stoddard's keynote address was entitled "Ferment in Education." This became the basic theme through two days of strategic discussion. The presidents of Harvard University, the University of Chicago, and the University of Illinois, supported by several nationally known philosophers and scientists, expressed themselves sharply and convincingly along the line of this central thought. In the language of the introductory page, "This was in the best sense a symposium on education at one of the great turning points in education. Education at a time of ferment was being analyzed and studied, its constituent and driving forces made clear, and its road ahead being explored." Each speaker revealed serious concern for the difficult path to be traveled and for the outcome of this titanic struggle on the academic firing line of our social, institutional, and moral progress.

The three main emphases were the welfare

of the University of Illinois, the advancement of our national program of public education, and the more pressing problems of education in general. More objectively and more definitely, the subject matter involved the size of our universities; the off-campus service of these institutions; how to secure the greatest benefit from liberal, scientific, and social instruction; and the best way to seek out and to utilize our most talented youth.

The addresses are classified under the following captions: "The Sobering Problems of Education," "The Race between Education and Catastrophe," "Challenge to the Health Sciences," and "Educational Responsibilities of the University of Illinois." The book begins with the comprehensive and incisive address of the self-reliant man who was taking on his strong shoulders the leadership of a great university. The closing pages are devoted to the ceremonial proceedings related to the official installation exercises.

Prominent names among those persons participating in the inauguration are Robert M. Hutchins, Archibald MacLeish, James Conant, Omar N. Bradley, Dwight H. Green, Austin M. Brues, and Anton J. Carlson. Important professional fields represented are dentistry, pharmacy, medicine, and cancer research. An eloquent plea was made for pure scholarship in the area of scientific research, thus providing a sound basis for applied science and technology.

The volume is printed on large-size paper in a size and style of type that will please every eye. The illustrations are an attractive feature of this notable publication. It is this reviewer's hope that future inaugural programs at our larger institutions will be made

available in printed form for the benefit of those persons who are deeply interested but who are unable to attend the ceremonies.

Dr. Stoddard is the tenth president to be inducted at the University of Illinois. Although psychology, with special reference to the influence of environment on human intelligence, is his major field of academic research, he served four years as commissioner of education for the state of New York. He is the official American representative on the executive board of UNESCO. He contributes to this volume of proceedings an excellent statement concerning the value of education in shaping up the peace of the world, and, with some final thoughts, he draws a picture of the forward steps which he hopes will be taken by the progressive cultural institutions of the United States.

CARROLL D. CHAMPLIN

Pennsylvania State College

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C. H. SCHERF, *Do Your Own Thinking*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1948. Pp. x+368. \$2.40.

A popular criticism of American schools is that their students and graduates are not able to think clearly. To some extent this view is probably justified. There is good reason to believe that few persons fully utilize their native capacities for learning, but most students can learn to think clearly if they understand the principles of human behavior and recognize some of the fallacies and pitfalls encountered in thinking. It is a main function of education to stimulate and to guide free inquiry and to develop within the students critical thinking in the various areas of living.

C. H. Scherf's volume, *Do Your Own Thinking*, demonstrates one way in which critical thinking can be developed. Although the book is written primarily as a course in straight thinking for secondary-school students, it includes other objectives which are

useful in attaining independence in thinking. Mental health is discussed by emphasizing positive factors in the achievement of mental balance rather than abnormal factors which interfere with good thinking. Since poor emotional control affects the thinking process, the author stresses methods of overcoming fear, worry, and anger. However, straight thinking is also concerned with methods of study, with vocabulary growth, with personality development, with ethics, and with opinion analysis. The author cleverly weaves these elements together to achieve his major purpose of encouraging the student to think for himself.

Certain topics of the book are treated exceptionally well. Two of these are the physiology of the nervous system and the learning process. The approaches made to these topics are well suited to the audience for whom the book is intended. A key chapter in the book, "Dangers to Straight Thinking," should be particularly stimulating to high-school students. The author holds that the brain is naturally lazy, that it falls prey to many devices which make it stray from the path of straight thinking. The student must be taught to collect and examine information, but this is only part of the job. He must beware of placing too much trust in broad generalizations, in vague abstractions, or oversimplifications; he must examine the agents of information to see if they have axes to grind; he must be taught to cultivate a desire for good thinking, even though the truth arrived at often hurts. The author also expounds the advantages of good thinking and presents seventeen rules for achieving it.

Outstanding features of the book are the appendixes and the problems at the end of each chapter. To provide vicarious experiences for the pupils, one appendix contains a list of novels, biographies, histories, and essays. Another contains a list of visual aids. Although the latter is subdivided by chapters, it is comprehensive rather than selective. The list of films includes addresses of producers and distributors, running time,

and data concerning type of film (silent or sound, color or black and white). The questions and problems, a vital part of the book, are not primarily information-seeking but are designed particularly for problem-solving.

Educators, as well as secondary-school students, will be interested in examining the author's basic philosophy—faith in the belief that human nature can be changed through education.

JASPER J. VALENTI

University of Chicago

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SAMUEL STEINBERG and DANIEL C. KNOWLTON, *The American Way in Community Life*. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1948. Pp. viii+408. \$1.92.

The trend toward making social-studies work a functional, rather than an informational, subject has been advanced in a new textbook, *The American Way in Community Life*, by Steinberg and Knowlton. The authors attempt to present American practices, ideals, and institutions in such a way as "to banish those prejudices and practices which have thus far thwarted the full realization of the American dream" (p. iii).

The book, directed in vocabulary and content to adolescent readers, ignores traditional subject-matter lines by including material from each of the social sciences. Although comprehensive in scope, the volume is centered in the American community, its development, economy, services, and government.

A unique contribution of this book is contained in the supplementary teaching aids at the end of each chapter. These materials include a vocabulary, recall questions, topics and questions designed to promote thought and discussion, suggestions for extended activities, and a presentation of ways in which boys and girls of high-school age may serve in the related aspects of community living.

In addition, there are a students' bibliography and an annotated list of related films. Among the other aids there appears a graph at the end of each chapter. The graphs are of various types, and all are followed by interpretation questions.

In general, the authors present a factual and realistic picture of the American community and its problems. However, even though they attempt to give the arguments on both sides of controversial issues, such as federal aid to education or government ownership of utilities, there is evident a leaning toward a liberal solution to these questions.

There is evident, also, throughout the book, a concern with developing not merely a factual understanding of America through its community but also an emotional attachment to American ideals. Particularly, the last chapter, "Reaffirming Faith in the American Way," ties together the threads of this appeal. The pledge of allegiance to the flag and the Preamble to the Constitution are discussed, phrase by phrase, in terms of their implications for each individual's actions and beliefs relating to community problems. The authors suggest a summary of the source of America's problems in these words:

Maybe some people love their pet hates more than they love their country. Maybe some people wish to promote their private welfare more than they wish to promote the general welfare. Maybe some wish the blessings of liberty only for themselves instead of for "ourselves and our posterity." And maybe all too many of us, instead of being active players on the team, would rather sit on the bench or in the grandstand and watch others struggle to solve the problems of our society [p. 378].

All in all, *The American Way in Community Life* is a usable textbook for high-school social-studies work although, as is true concerning any book which undertakes to present the scope of material that this title suggests, it treats some areas inadequately and rather superficially. Possibly as a conscious response to the stresses of these times,

it verges almost upon indoctrination in its presentation. Nevertheless, it is well written and is appropriate in style and content to the high-school level. The material is presented in a manner which emphasizes the translation of American ideals into practice, and, in

this respect, it is more advanced than most social-study books.

GEORGE W. BROWN

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CURRENT PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

METHOD, HISTORY, THEORY, AND PRACTICE

American School Buildings. Twenty-seventh Yearbook of the American Association of School Administrators. Washington 6: American Association of School Administrators, 1949. Pp. 526. \$4.00.

Arithmetic Teaching Techniques. An In-Service Survey and Study Conducted by a Committee on Arithmetic Teaching Techniques with the Cooperation of the District Superintendents, Principals, and Teachers in the Chicago Public Elementary Schools. Chicago 1: Board of Education of the City of Chicago, 1949. Pp. x+348.

CHAMBERLAIN, LEO M., and KINDRED, LESLIE W. *The Teacher and School Organization.* New York 11: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1949 (second edition). Pp. xii+682.

DOLCH, EDWARD WILLIAM. *Helping Handicapped Children in School.* Champaign, Illinois: Garrard Press, 1948. Pp. viii+350. \$3.50.

FEDDER, RUTH. *Guiding Homeroom and Club Activities.* New York 18: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1949. Pp. xx+468. \$4.50.

HAVIGHURST, ROBERT J., and TABA, HILDA. *Adolescent Character and Personality.* New York 16: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1949. Pp. x+316. \$4.00.

PETERSON, SHAILER, with a summary chapter by RALPH W. TYLER and WILLARD W. BEATTY. *How Well Are Indian Children Educated? Summary of Results of a Three Year Program Testing the Achievement of Indian Children in Federal, Public and*

Mission Schools. Lawrence, Kansas: United States Indian Service (Haskell Institute), 1948. Pp. 182.

BOOKS FOR HIGH-SCHOOL TEACHERS AND PUPILS

Arithmetic for Young America: Grade Three by JOHN R. CLARK, RUTH I. BALDWIN, and CAROLINE HATTON CLARK, with the co-operation of MONICA M. HOYE, pp. vi+314, \$1.52; *Teacher's Manual*, pp. 32. *Grade Four* by JOHN R. CLARK, RUTH I. BALDWIN, and CAROLINE HATTON CLARK, with the co-operation of MONICA M. HOYE, pp. vi+298, \$1.52; *Teacher's Manual*, pp. 30. *Grade Five* by JOHN R. CLARK, MONICA M. HOYE, and CAROLINE HATTON CLARK, with the co-operation of RUTH I. BALDWIN, pp. vi+314, \$1.52; *Teacher's Manual*, pp. 32. *Grade Six* by JOHN R. CLARK, MONICA M. HOYE, and CAROLINE HATTON CLARK, with the co-operation of RUTH I. BALDWIN, pp. vi+298, \$1.52; *Teacher's Manual*, pp. 32. *Grade Seven* by RALEIGH SCHORLING, JOHN R. CLARK, and ROLLAND R. SMITH, pp. xiv+368, \$1.52; *Teacher's Manual*, pp. 24. *Grade Eight* by RALEIGH SCHORLING, JOHN R. CLARK, and ROLLAND R. SMITH, pp. xiv+402, \$1.52; *Teacher's Manual*, pp. 24. Yonkers-on-Hudson 5, New York: World Book Co., 1949 (revised).

GOWERS, SIR ERNEST. *Plain Words: A Guide to the Use of English.* London: His Majesty's Stationery Office, 1948. Pp. iv+94. \$1.15, cloth; \$0.70, paper.

- GREENE, AMSEL. *Word Clues: Textbook-Workbook in Word Study and Vocabulary Building*, pp. 124, \$2.00; *Word Clues Guide*, pp. 32, \$0.50. Evanston, Illinois: Row, Peterson & Co., 1949.
- HOLCROFT, M. H. *Communication through the Newspaper*. Primary School Bulletin. Wellington, New Zealand: School Publications Branch, Education Department, 1948. Pp. 36.
- HOOD, MARGUERITE V., and SCHULTZ, E. J. *Learning Music through Rhythm*. Boston 17: Ginn & Co., 1949. Pp. xii+180. \$3.00.
- KNIGHT, PEARLE E., and TRAXLER, ARTHUR E. *Read and Comprehend*. Boston 16: D. C. Heath & Co., 1949 (revised). Pp. xiv+298. \$2.20.
- LANDIS, PAUL H., and LANDIS, JUDSON T. *Social Living: Sociology and Social Problems*. Boston 17: Ginn & Co., 1949 (revised). Pp. xii+404.
- LANSING, MARION. *America in the World*. Boston 16: D. C. Heath & Co., 1949. Pp. xvi+704. \$2.96.
- NIEMAN, EGBERT W., and SALT, GEORGE E. *Pleasure in Literature*. Living Literature. New York 17: Harcourt, Brace & Co., 1949. Pp. xiv+654. \$2.92.
- RICHMOND, SAMUEL S. *Career Plays for Young People*. Nonroyalty Vocational Guidance Plays. Boston 16: Plays, Inc., 1949. Pp. viii+342. \$3.50.
- ROEHM, A. WESLEY; BUSKE, MORRIS R.; WEBSTER, HUTTON; and WESLEY, EDGAR B. *The Record of Mankind*. Boston 16: D. C. Heath & Co., 1949. Pp. xviii+744. \$3.60.
- SCHORLING, RALEIGH, and SMITH, ROLLAND R., with the co-operation of JOHN R. CLARK. *Algebra*, First Course. Yonkers-on-Hudson 5, New York: World Book Co., 1949. Pp. x+406. \$1.92.
- SNADER, DANIEL W. *Algebra: Meaning and Mastery*. Book One. Philadelphia 7: John C. Winston Co., 1949. Pp. x+502. \$2.20.
- TRESSLER, J. C., and LIPMAN, MAURICE C. *Business English in Action*. Boston 16: D. C. Heath & Co., 1949. Pp. xvi+530. \$2.80.
- WARD, ETHEL G.; LODGE, EVAN; and FINCH, MILDRED. *Steps to Language Power*. New York 16: Harper & Bros., 1949. Pp. xii+382.

PUBLICATIONS IN PAMPHLET FORM

- AMERICAN RED CROSS. *Annual Report for the Year Ending June 30, 1948*. Washington 13: American National Red Cross, 1948. Pp. 192.
- BOUTHILET, LORRAINE, and BYRNE, KATHARINE MANN. *You and Your Mental Abilities*. Life Adjustment Booklet. Chicago 4: Science Research Associates, 1948. Pp. 48. \$0.75.
- Developing School Plant Programs*. Report of the School Plant Conferences Held at the University of Utah, Summer of 1948. Edited by ROALD F. CAMPBELL and JOHN E. MARSHALL. Salt Lake City, Utah: Department of Elementary Education, University of Utah, 1949. Pp. 76. \$1.00.
- Educational Leaders—Their Function and Preparation*. A Report of the Second Work-Conference of the National Conference of Professors of Educational Administration Held at Madison, Wisconsin, August 29–September 4, 1948. New York 27: Professor Daniel R. Davies, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1948. Pp. 64. \$1.00.
- ESCARRÁ, ENRIQUE J. M. *Higiene industrial, salud pública y bienestar humano*. Publicación No. 13. Santa Fe, Argentina: Escuela de Salubridad, Facultad de Higiene y Medicina Preventiva, Universidad Nacional del Litoral, 1948. Pp. 20.
- FOX, CHARLESANNA. *How To Organize a Community Film Information Center*. Chicago 10: Film Council of America, n.d. Pp. 16. \$0.15.
- Gold Star List of American Fiction*. Syracuse 2, New York: Syracuse Public Library, 1948. Pp. 52. \$0.60.
- HART, LAURANCE. *Comparison of Encyclopedias*. Metuchen, New Jersey: Laurance Hart (14 West Walnut Street), 1949 (41st edition). \$0.25.

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